

JOURNAL OF COMMUNITY RELATIONS

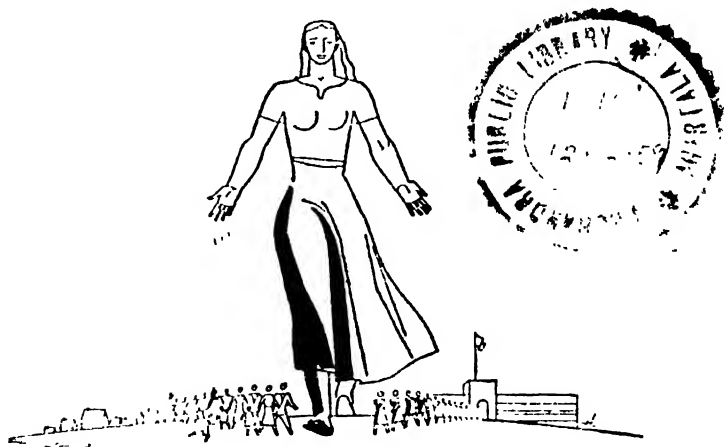


SCHOOL - COMMUNITY RELATIONS

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PREFACE

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL has come to be the principal socializing institution for the development of childhood. It has burst the bonds of isolation and self-complacency and has come to be recognized, reluctantly on the part of many, for its obligations to an emerging generation. With community, state, and national living carried on through many institutions and through a complex variety of activities, whose purposes and activities now overlap at many points, the need is most apparent for a careful study of the role and function of the public school in social living. There is great need to formulate sound policy and a satisfying program embracing the total educational situation in which all childhood lives and moves and has its being.

This book is addressed to public-school officials, teachers, parents, and community leaders, who must deal with the problems of school-community relations and are concerned with the rich and many-sided development of childhood. It is based on a philosophy of education which is socially significant for childhood.

The American people, in order to provide ways for better living, have established many agencies and institutions to provide the means for the development and enlightenment of members of society, each in its own way and in accordance with its own peculiar purpose. Among these institutions is the public school, which society has established for a more specific purpose—namely, as Charles A. Beard has put it, to guard, cherish, advance, and make available in the life of the coming generations the funded and growing wisdom, knowledge, and aspirations of the race. To these purposes the public school is committed.

Yet it must be quite apparent that similar purposes motivate other agencies and institutions of modern society. Seeking a solution to society's ills while attempting to provide ways for better living, they overlap with the public school at many points. During his waking hours, the child comes in contact with many influences, being constantly "bombarded" in the home and the community with ideas which mold his pattern of thinking and living.

The more formal aspects of the individual and group development of the younger generations must be assumed by a definitely established institution upon which this responsibility is placed. It is evident that

those means of enlightenment and educational development not otherwise provided for in the social order, or deemed by society necessary for its group preservation and advancement, should be performed in a more formal manner, presumably more efficiently, and, above all, under professional direction. This is the direct responsibility of public education.

The influence and character of the public-school enterprise tends to mold society, as the public school is in turn molded. Each, then, influences the other. As a matter of fact, whatever the child is and becomes, is and should be a cooperative enterprise. To mesh all of these influences upon child life, especially as they relate to the specific purposes of public education, is largely the task of desirable school-community relations under public-school direction.

This text recognizes the total educational and social pattern of living which exists in any community. The home, the school, the church, clubs and recreation centers, and all agencies and institutions of the community are conceived collectively as dominating educational influences in the life of the child. The public school has been placed in a central position of leadership and direction, in order that the educational influence of the others may be properly coordinated. This is the school's primary duty.

The public school does not "look out" upon life; it *is* life; it is a *part* of life, for every child. The whole community constitutes his life. If the child's life is to be an abundant one, there should be a "meeting of minds" of all associated with his education and development. A harmonious cooperation of the home, the school, and the community, whether as individuals, agencies, or institutions, should be sought for this purpose.

This book considers education as a cooperative process, recognizing constantly the leadership of the public school, which is, at the same time, only one of the agencies that influence the child educationally. These agencies, to be efficient educationally, must be "in step" with one another. With a clear comprehension of the public school, its points of contact with the public, and the contributions of agencies and institutions in the community, it should be possible under effective leadership to achieve organization directed toward more abundant living for all childhood.

The development of a desirable school-community relations program is an administrative function. Recognition of its significance is growing rapidly. Its proper direction must be predicated on an adequate and sound philosophical and functional basis.

The materials in this book have been completely revised. Much new material has been added, especially new chapters dealing with the larger community, school-community relations programs and their evaluation, and the community school. Although the general plan and purpose of the

book are much the same, there has been a considerable rearrangement of chapters in order to provide better sequence and unity. The drawings by Harvey B. Cushman, which appeared in the first edition, have been supplemented by additional drawings by Wesley Mills.

The author desires to acknowledge again those who are mentioned in the first edition. The dissertations of many graduate students have also been helpful. From his students the author has received invaluable assistance in presenting materials and clarifying ideas. Acknowledgment is made to many publishers, to the National Education Association, and to others who permitted quotations and the use of illustrative material. Specific recognition is given these in the body of the text. Acknowledgment is made to Edgar Dale, of Ohio State University, and to others who examined the material and offered many suggestions prior to revision.

Finally, thanks are due to the author's wife for stimulating encouragement and to Kennett and Margaret, to whom the book is affectionately dedicated. Whatever shortcomings it possesses are entirely the author's.

W. A. Y.

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PART ONE

**PUBLIC EDUCATION
AND COMMUNITY INTEREST**



CHAPTER 1

Public Education and Social Living

MARY BROWN stood at the front door that October morning, her glances following her three children as they went down the street to school. Susan was in high school, and a hall monitor. By her side was little Rose Marie, tripping along and anxious to get to school in time to help the teacher get the room ready. Rose Marie loved first grade. Mary Brown watched as Susan helped her little sister over the busy street corner. John had just entered the junior high school. He was growing fast. Mother felt that he could take a little more interest in Rose Marie if he cared to. She would speak to him about it. But his mind was on other things as he darted off in another direction. Mary Brown turned and went into the kitchen.

At the parent-teacher association meeting last night, they had had a speaker who had talked about the community school. He had discussed cooperation in community living, a curriculum better adapted for the boys and girls, using community resources for the better education of the children, keeping the school building open longer hours, sharing the responsibility, and making the school a genuine community school. Mary

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and her husband John had both been there. She had liked it because it had sounded so reasonable. Small wonder that as she turned to her morning work the thoughts of the speaker ran through her mind. She wondered if the school was a community school, and she decided it was not. Her children always passed, and they loved their school. But did she and John, as parents, really understand the experiences through which their children were passing? What relationship did these experiences bear to the children's play, their home life, and their church? And were they growing up to be good citizens? Yes, that was it, good citizens. Did she and John really understand the education of their children? Should all the children's school experiences have more meaning in terms of good citizenship? She was troubled about it.

In that community most people believed that they had a good school system. But recently, at the first meeting of the parent-teacher association, some harsh criticisms had been leveled at the school board and the superintendent about the curriculum and the taxes. Last night a little pamphlet had been distributed. The superintendent had said it was designed for family use. It told about the work of the school and how the money was spent. John and she should read it together. Perhaps at the next meeting of the parent-teacher association they would discuss it. The superintendent had a way of making things clear. She liked him. But, she thought, what were the schools really teaching her children? Did all of their experiences fit together? She would talk it over with John that evening.



Eternal vigilance seems to be the price we must pay for the liberties which give us so many opportunities. And the responsibility for developing this vigilance seems to be placed more and more on the public school system. Year after year sees the steady growth of the school's responsibilities. Our increasing diversity of human activities creates an increasing number of social, industrial, economic, and political problems, producing situations which affect the home and the educational life of the nation. Changing conceptions of the home and of our patterns of living have thrust upon the school the need and responsibility for molding, adapting, and educating the youth of the nation to meet these changes.

These changing conceptions and conditions inevitably concern the public school, if it is to fulfill its function. The older generation, with its tendency to retain the acceptable elements of the past in its pattern of thinking, has little awareness of changes unless they are drawn vividly to its attention. Moreover, conviction does not necessarily follow awareness.

Indeed, the adaptation of the public school to a new educational pattern within a generation is a wonder in itself, not yet grasped by many of its own teachers and administrators, much less by the lay public.

Despite the significance of change in a democratic society, it is important to realize that there are lasting principles which underlie it. These principles were conceived in the passion of our forefathers for freedom and were born amid the trials of conquering a new world. It is necessary that these be understood and held constantly in mind by those who are responsible for the public school and its administration. The life blood of a democratic society is a sound educational system, free to all, in which the rights of every child are recognized, and adequate opportunity is given for the development of his individual capacities in accordance with his needs, interests, and inborn abilities. It is the purpose of this chapter to understand the nature of democracy and of education in relation to it.

EDUCATION AS A FUNCTION OF GOVERNMENT IN A DEMOCRACY

THE NATURE OF DEMOCRACY

Democracy in America was born under circumstances of great political, economic, and social stress. Escape from conditions which they found difficult to endure, or the hope of better things abroad, prompted the founders of America to seek new homes in a new world. Removed from the restraints of established governments, new governments had to be formed and new ideals molded to suit new, evolving patterns. The imprints of varied ethnic groups and social classes and the traditions of many cultures checkered the social order about to be formed. Democracy, conceived under these conditions, has become a great social principle. Its ideas and ideals have become the warp and woof of American social thinking.

Democracy may be said to be a way of social living which enables each of us to develop his personality in the light of these American ideals and to attain a full measure of individual, family, and group development through the protection of freedoms and rights guaranteed him by tradition and by law. To attain this development, however, the individual must fulfill his responsibilities to the government and to the group of which he is a member. The function of the state is to serve the interests of all the people who compose it. That democracy may be said to serve best wherein a proper balance is achieved between the rights of the individual and the welfare of the state of which he is an integral part.

EDUCATION IN A DEMOCRACY

Education in the United States may be said to have been instituted for the perservation of democracy and for the creation of a suitable environment for the growth and perpetuation of democratic principles. As human beings must be reproduced if the race is to continue, so the social and cultural heritage must be recreated if democracy is to persist. Indeed, some writers speak of education as social reproduction. With education "one generation can stand upon the shoulders of its predecessor." With education cultural progress can be reasonably assured, democratic institutions reasonably preserved and enhanced, and the rights of individuals, families, and other groups reasonably maintained. Such is the spirit of education in a democracy.

Yet education conceived in this sense is a far broader term than schooling—that is, the formal education commonly provided in a school. Indeed, if one considers man's entire experience toward social betterment since the dawn of time, the school, more particularly the public school, has not had a particularly large part in his advancement. Other institutions, such as the home, the church, and community activities of all kinds, have played and are playing an enormous part in the educational process. More recently the motion picture, the radio, television, the newspaper, the magazine, and other cultural-social agencies have influenced the American mind to an extraordinary degree.

CHANGING NATURE OF EDUCATION

Our American way of living is characterized by constant change. Our industrial economy, with its inventions, machines, factories, tools, precision, and mass-production techniques, materially affects community living and the forms of education. Improved means of transportation and communication shorten time and space. The drudgery of home and farm diminish with the turn of a switch or the hum of a motor. Technology has far outstripped social and economic thinking and practice, leaving us to a degree socially inept—perhaps dangerously so. The very complexity of human living has profoundly influenced the pattern of family life, leisure pursuits, ways of making a living, and our relations with our fellow man. We are living in an era of widening circles of human relationships, which reach out, whether we will it or not, to the remotest society beyond the sea. All of this has meaning for education.

An awareness of the scope and variety of educational influences in American social life is essential to the student of education. The learning processes of the child are subject to a constant bombardment of experi-

ences which mold unformed or counteract previously formed impressions.

THE STATUS AND FUNCTION OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL

The public school is America's peculiar contribution to the cause, continuance, and preservation of democracy. Wherever in colonial or early national life the public school appeared, its establishment and continued existence and support were predicated upon democratic principles. Systems of state education were established in harmony with this great ideal. To the typical American, education is associated only with the public school. This he supports; to it he sends his children willingly; to it he looks for such educational leadership as his community may exercise.

Although the public school is but one of many influential institutions, it performs for society a unique function. This function is one of formal and organized education in contrast to the incidental educational nature of other social institutions. Traditionally the public school may be said to be an institution for all childhood, designed to perform those tasks which no other social institution is performing or which are being performed inadequately. In so doing it must contribute to the cause, continuance, and preservation of democracy.

But the public school has a greater function. Since democratic society tends to be dynamic, the public school, as the institution designed for its perpetuation, must in turn be *dynamic*, being immersed in desirable community living, assuming desirable educational functions necessary to that end, inaugurating new activities, and taking on new responsibilities which are an integral part of social life in that community. These opportunities must be ultimately available to all and denied to none.

The public school, then, has been conceived as fundamental to the democratic state and community life through the generations. *All that our citizens wish for their children which may be in harmony with democratic principles and ideals and is not otherwise adequately provided in the social order should be the work of the public school.* Thus, the cause of democracy is the cause of public education—each is essential to the other. The strength of one is the strength of the other, as the weakness of one is the weakness of the other.

STATE AND LOCAL RESPONSIBILITY FOR PUBLIC EDUCATION

By virtue of the Constitution of the United States, numerous court decisions, and common acceptance, public education is a function of each state, which is obliged to provide every child with an educational opportunity. Public education should be conceived as a service to the community for the benefit and welfare of the state. Although the individual may

receive this benefit as a free gift, many courts have ruled that to attend a public school is a duty and not a privilege. The implications of this principle are of much importance in school-community relations.

The provision for education, its control, and its support rests primarily upon the state legislature. The legislature determines the minimum educational program, creates or employs agencies to carry out its educational policies, and authorizes local units to organize and maintain schools in its behalf. Complete authority over the agencies it creates is vested in the legislature. At the same time, it acts through these agencies, which it clothes with sufficient powers to achieve the ends sought.

The local unit legally provided to administer public education is generally the school district. As a creature of the legislature, it has powers and functions delegated to it which provide it with the means whereby it may operate the schools adequately.

School district organization has traditionally been closely associated with the political boundaries of each community. Thus it may be a city, a borough, a rural community (township), or a county. Where population is sparse, the district may take the form of a consolidation of communities for greater educational opportunities or better support. The form and nature of the school district is rapidly changing from small geographical areas with limited facilities to communities capable of supporting a complete educational program at least through the secondary school.

Local school organization with some measure of state control has proved to be the best means of protecting the democratic nature of public education. Under such a system, parents can participate effectively in the operation of the schools, the local educational authority being the agent of the community as well as of the state. Ideally, education is divorced from local partisan political domination and each local school unit operates in a socially coherent area large enough to provide for a system of education sufficient to meet the needs, interests, and desires of the people for their children. If the educational function is extended to adults as well, the physical, economic, social, and cultural development of all may lead to greater social efficiency and human happiness.

In most states the local unit of organization is undergoing significant reconstruction in harmony with this pattern. The educational program is being geared not only to the children of school age but to adults as well, in order to improve community living and to provide for the many and complex needs and experiences of all the children. Such a unit should have a degree of self-sufficiency and provide adequate educational opportunities for all. Thus the boys on the farm are better citizens because of the schools; girls are better homemakers because of educational advan-

tages. The best that society can afford in the way of enriched living is the concern of the public schools in each community.

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT AND EDUCATION

Despite the fact that no mention of education is to be found in the federal constitution, the federal government has participated in American education to a marked degree. For a century and a half it has followed almost consistently the policy of encouraging the several states to develop their educational systems, at the same time assuming no direct responsibility for education. This encouragement has taken the forms of (1) grants of land, (2) grants of money for special types of education, notably in the vocational field, (3) maintenance of certain types of schools and colleges (such as West Point and Annapolis) for specialized training, (4) maintenance of schools in the District of Columbia, the territories, and for the Indians, and (5) the United States Office of Education.

In recent years, the federal government has entered into a more direct relationship to education. Federal funds have been expended for constructing school buildings, beautifying school grounds, establishing school lunch programs, providing funds to keep financially distressed school systems in operation, guaranteeing minimum educational opportunity to all children, and providing vocational opportunities.

The benefits of these federal services are ultimately felt by every school child, although they were primarily intended to ensure adequate educational opportunity for children receiving substandard education. The problem in federal participation is how to maintain a proper balance in relation to state and local control while attempting to ensure educational opportunity.

RESPONSIBILITY OF CITIZENSHIP

Since we live in a democracy and enjoy its benefits, it is incumbent upon all citizens to assume some responsibility for its preservation and development. Democracy provides for each citizen as his natural rights protection and security, religious freedom, social and economic advancement, education of his children, civil rights, and freedom to develop family and group mores according to one's own ideas and ideals within the democratic framework. In return, the citizen has a responsibility to protect vigorously the institutions of government and society that guarantees these rights. The sovereignty of a democracy is inherent in all the people that compose it, and the perpetuation of its functions is the obligation of all.

PUBLIC OPINION

The preservation of the institutions and ideals of our democracy, of which education is one, requires the existence of an intelligent and tolerant public opinion. Hence, citizens must be informed on public affairs in order to act upon them intelligently. Desirable legislative enactments, for example, can be based only on sound public opinion intelligently expressed. Education as a community enterprise can be maintained only by the intelligent and active support of the citizens. Hence, the education of the adult becomes a necessary accompaniment of any educational program. Diversity of opinion is essential for a well-balanced society, for, through sound discussion, integration of purpose will generally result.

MAJORITY AND MINORITY INTERESTS

Although in an effective democracy minority interests become subordinated to the will of the majority, it is commonly agreed that minority interests and rights must be preserved—not only as a check upon the will of the majority, but because all individuals and groups have a right to free expression not in conflict with the preservation of society as a whole. True democracy will seek to preserve liberty, equality of opportunity, and justice wherever it resides. Although individuals or parties in power may not agree with the opinions as expressed by other individuals or minority groups, the majority must, *for its own preservation*, defend to the utmost the rights of the minority to express freely those opinions. Only in this manner can democracy survive, for the pages of history reveal that most of the great social and economic movements of time have developed through the activities and ideals of minority groups.

SOCIAL CLASSES AND MOBILITY

Democracy as a theory of social living has never been able to overcome that form of social behavior which has separated people into social classes. The terms upper, middle, and lower class have become well established in human history. Plato conceived of a four-class society. Despite the desperate efforts of the democratic movement to erase all forms of class grouping, the fact remains that our social structure is still a class society. This is not only evident in social living but, as Hollingshead¹ has so aptly pointed out, has become an essential characteristic in our educational structure. Each social class group has its peculiar characteristics

¹ August B. Hollingshead, *Elmstown's Youth* (John Wiley & Sons, 1949). See also W. Lloyd Warner, Robert J. Havighurst, and Martin B. Loeb, *Who Should Be Educated?* (Harper and Brothers, 1944).

which tend to become fixed in community living, especially as indicated by place of residence, leadership, standards of living, culture, religion, clothes, social position, vocation, and attitudes. Moreover, social mobility—that is, transition from one class to another—is not as frequent as is commonly supposed. One may raise himself socially through wealth, social position, marriage, education, and influence. One may lower his social status through loss of wealth, moral conditions, intemperance, disease, unfortunate economic conditions, laziness, or a family situation within or beyond his control.

Democracy as a way of living—and especially through the educational structure—should offer all youth means of achieving upward social mobility. The educational program is the principal means to bring this about. Its administration must be accompanied by an enlightenment that recognizes its possibilities and is willing to break sharply with traditional barriers.

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

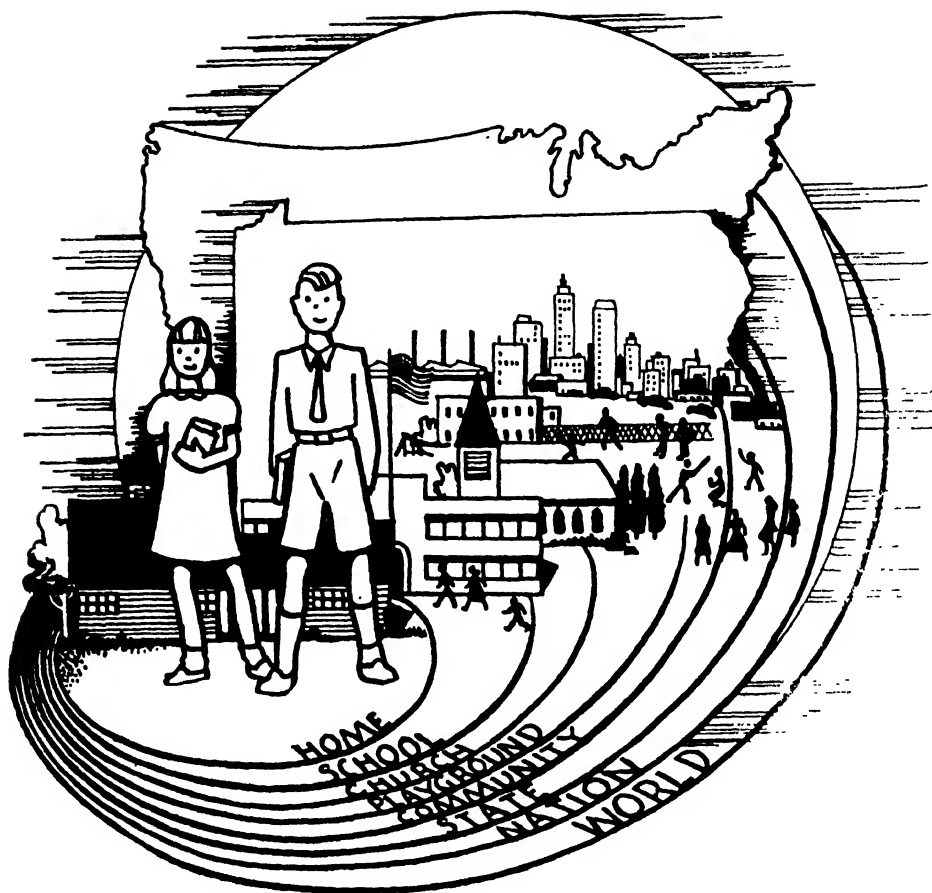
OBJECTIVES VARYING WITH TIME AND COMMUNITY ATTITUDES

The specific objectives of public education have naturally varied with time and with popular attitudes. In colonial times, the religious objective in education was dominant, especially within groups which had settled and lived under a controlling religious influence. As the need for a participating citizenship for the protection of the state and general welfare became paramount in an evolving democracy, the political objective gradually superseded the religious. The great material expansion in the United States developed the economic objective. This objective is still readily discernible. More recently, the social objective is assuming increasing importance. Throughout there has been an emphasis upon the cultural and the useful; at times these have seemed mutually exclusive.

CARDINAL PRINCIPLES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

In times of great social crises we have been led to redefine the nature and purposes of education. In 1918, at the end of World War I, the Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education, in its *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*² indicated the following as major objectives: (1) health, (2) command of the fundamental processes, (3) worthy home membership, (4) vocation, (5) citizenship, (6) worthy use of leisure,

² "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education," *Bulletin No. 35* (Bureau of Education, 1918).



THE EVER-WIDENING-CIRCLES OF CHILDHOOD EXPERIENCES

and (7) ethical character. These cardinal principles have had a tremendous influence upon the nature and purposes of secondary education. With the omission of *vocation* as an aim, they have been accepted by many as the objectives of elementary education. Many writers have used them as a basis for formulating general aims of education and have profoundly influenced the educational process thereby.

THE CHILDREN'S CHARTER

The conviction that America wants for her childhood the highest standards of living and achievement compatible with her resources and ways of living has perhaps nowhere been better expressed than in the Children's Charter³ set forth below. Is it possible to achieve it and to what degree?

³ "The Improvement of Education," *Fifteenth Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence (National Education Association, 1937), pp. 18-19

THE CHILDREN'S CHARTER

I. For every child spiritual and moral training to help him to stand firm under the pressure of life.

II. For every child understanding and the guarding of his personality as his most precious right.

III. For every child a home and that love and security which a home provides; and for that child who must receive foster care, the nearest substitute for his own home.

IV. For every child full preparation for his birth, his mother receiving prenatal, natal, and postnatal care; and the establishment of such protective measures as will make childbearing safer.

V. For every child health protection from birth through adolescence, including: periodical health examinations and, where needed, care of specialists and hospital treatment; regular dental examination and care of the teeth; protective and preventive measures against communicable diseases; the insuring of pure food, pure milk, and pure water.

VI. For every child from birth through adolescence, promotion of health, including health instruction and a health program, wholesome physical and mental recreation, with teachers and leaders adequately trained.

VII. For every child a dwelling place safe, sanitary, and wholesome, with reasonable provisions for privacy, free from conditions which tend to thwart his development; and a home environment harmonious and enriching.

VIII. For every child a school which is safe from hazards, sanitary, properly equipped, lighted, and ventilated. For younger children nursery schools and kindergartens to supplement home care.

IX. For every child a community which recognizes and plans for his needs, protects him against physical dangers, moral hazards, and disease; provides him with safe and wholesome places for play and recreation; and makes provision for his cultural and social needs.

X. For every child an education which, through the discovery and development of his individual abilities, prepares him for life; and through training and vocational guidance prepares him for a living which will yield him the maximum of satisfaction.

XI. For every child such teaching and training as will prepare him for successful parenthood, homemaking, and the rights of citizenship; and, for parents, supplementary training to fit them to deal wisely with the problems of parenthood.

XII. For every child education for safety and protection against accidents to which modern conditions subject him—those to which he is directly exposed and those which, through loss or maiming of his parents, affect him indirectly.

XIII. For every child who is blind, deaf, crippled, or otherwise physically handicapped, and for the child who is mentally handicapped, such measures as will early discover and diagnose his handicap, provide care and treatment, and so train him that he may become an asset to society

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rather than a liability. Expenses of these services should be borne publicly where they cannot be privately met.

XIV. For every child who is in conflict with society the right to be dealt with intelligently as society's charge, not society's outcast; with the home, the school, the church, the court and the institution when needed, shaped to return him whenever possible to the normal stream of life.

XV. For every child the right to grow up in a family with an adequate standard of living and the security of a stable income as the surest safeguard against social handicaps.

XVI. For every child protection against labor that stunts growth, either physical or mental, that limits education, that deprives children of the right of comradeship, of play, and of joy.

XVII. For every rural child as satisfactory schooling and health services as for the city child, and an extension to rural families of social, recreational, and cultural facilities.

XVIII. To supplement the home and the school in the training of youth, and to return them those interests of which modern life tends to cheat children, every stimulation and encouragement should be given to the extension and development of the voluntary youth organizations.

XIX. To make everywhere available these minimum protections of the health and welfare of children, there should be a district, county, or community organization for health, education, and welfare with full-time officials, coordinating with a state-wide program which will be responsive to a nationwide service of general statistics, and scientific research. This should include:

- (a) Trained, full-time public health officials, with public health nurses, sanitary inspection, and laboratory workers;

- (b) Available hospital beds;

- (c) Full-time public welfare service for the relief, aid, and guidance of children in special need due to poverty, misfortune, or behavior difficulties; and for the protection of children from abuse, neglect, exploitation, or moral hazard.

THE PURPOSES OF EDUCATION IN AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

Perhaps the most comprehensive statement of the purposes of education in American democracy has been made by the Educational Policies Commission, appointed by the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators.⁴ The statement can be summarized as follows:

Democratic schools arose as a response to the evolutionary processes of American life. Democracy and education are inextricably related. The success of one implies the preservation of the other. To achieve the minimum essentials of democracy—namely, (1) the general welfare, (2) civil liberty, (3) the consent of the governed, (4) the appeal to reason, and (5)

⁴ *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* (National Education Association, 1938).

the pursuit of happiness—four groups of objectives are identified—namely, (1) self-realization, (2) human relationship, (3) economic efficiency, and (4) civic responsibility.

Each of these major purposes of education is broken down into specific objectives. Included in self-realization are the inquiring mind, speech, reading, writing, public health, recreation, intellectual interests, esthetic interests, and character.

In achieving the objectives of human relationship there must be respect for humanity, friendship, cooperation, courtesy, appreciation of the home, conservation of the home, homemaking, and democracy in the home. These enable the individual to be homemaker, friend, and neighbor.

Because the citizen is both producer and consumer, individual and group economic efficiency is important. To realize this objective, there is need for work, occupational information, occupational choice, occupational efficiency, occupational adjustment, occupational appreciation, personal economics, consumer judgment, efficiency in buying, and consumer protection.

The objectives of civic responsibility look outward toward an ever-widening political¹ and social humanity. Their attainment depends on social justice, social activity, social understanding, critical judgment, tolerance, conservation, social applications of science, world citizenship, law observance, economic literacy, political citizenship, and devotion to democracy.

The burden of realizing these objectives is shared by various fields of life and endeavor. Education has a definite place in the achievement of all, but more particularly in the field of civic responsibility. Yet its responsibilities are being constantly extended.

PECULIAR FUNCTIONS OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL

UNIVERSAL PUBLIC EDUCATION IN A DEMOCRACY

If the American way of life is to continue, its fundamental principles must be transmitted to successive generations. This is one of the principal tasks of the public school. At the same time, each individual is entitled to the development of his own personality as his heritage. Such a development must take place in the light of his social as well as his individual heritage. The task of making a *better way* of social living is an individual responsibility, for which the public school is fundamentally adapted. Hence, it is not only essential that the public school be established and

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maintained adequately, but that universal public education prevail for all children. The education of children in other than public schools must not be in opposition to this principle.

OTHER FUNCTIONS ASSIGNED TO PUBLIC EDUCATION

The public school must continue to exist in order that its primary function in a democratic society may be fulfilled. Yet, with the years, other functions have been assigned to public education. Assimilation of the thousands of immigrants who poured into this country at the turn of the century was an educational assignment. The preparation of boys and girls to make the most of their opportunities for rising in the world to positions of wealth and influence in a country where everybody could become President was accepted as an educational assignment. Education could give all an equal start. Education could create loyalty to democracy. Thus, as Beard⁵ has pointed out, leaders saw in education a pledge of national unity, a support for popular government, an instrument of intellectual emancipation, a servant of the practical arts, and a guarantee that talents would be supplied for public and private affairs.

The willingness of America to raise vast armies, expend vast sums, and cross the seas to fight for an ideal is a phenomenon bearing sufficient evidence that the principles of democracy are deeply embedded in American political and social thinking. Because the public school has been established to assist in maintaining these principles, the American people have been willing to continue it, extend it, and support it with huge sums of money. Every state has made some provision for the compulsory attendance of every child. Numerous school buildings, from one-room schools to huge modern high and elementary schools, have been erected and maintained. Large sums of money have been expended annually for their support.

NATURE OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLE'S CONCERN

Since a democracy must be a living, moving entity, its institutions must be integrated with the process of democratic living. Adequate control of the public schools and adequate leadership are essential. Attention must be given to desirable objectives and curricula. The people have a vital concern with all that goes on within the classroom: its teachings, its activities, its environment. The citizens not only need adequate information about the schools, but they must also see that the purposes for which the schools have been established are being realized. They need evidence of the character and ideals of those whom they select to administer and

⁵ *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy* (National Education Association, 1937), p. 49.

teach in this educational enterprise. Moreover, they have an inherent right through the use of the ballot and the various legal and other avenues open to them—national, state and local—to participate in, influence, modify, and appraise the whole educational structure. Furthermore, it is the duty of every citizen, whether parents of children attending the public schools or not, to be interested in this social institution, to guard its welfare, and to protect the interests of the rising generation.

INHERENT RIGHTS OF CHILDHOOD

The point of view in the previous paragraphs is that of the mature citizen—the parent or representative of the American people as a whole. What are the inherent rights of childhood to an education? A true democracy preconceives no fixed patterns impossible of change in or by a future generation. Too often as adults we conceive our world as an adult's world, our duty to determine its nature as strictly our own. Each child is a personality, and as such must be respected. Barriers to his full and complete expression should be removed so that within the limitations of his own abilities and environment he may be provided with the essentials to aid him in achieving the abundant life.

STEWARDS OF A PUBLIC TRUST

It would seem then that public school officials and teachers are stewards of a public trust, guardians of childhood entrusted to them by society. School-community relations must be concerned with the proper establishment of an accountancy which educational authorities have a natural responsibility to render and a democratic citizen, to expect. In harmony with the principle of democratic responsibility for and participation in all of society's basic institutions, there should be mutual cooperation in developing the educational enterprise.

THE WIDENING BASES OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

The nature of public education, conceived in terms of such goals and activities as have been set forth in the preceding paragraphs, is of far broader scope than was dreamed of by the founders of the public school system. The student of education should re-examine these goals and activities in order to grasp their comprehensive significance for the administration of child welfare. Here it is important to understand that the bases of public education are constantly widening and that those responsible for the public school enterprise must recognize these broadening bases and adapt the school program to the changing problems and conditions of society.

The increasing number of institutions and agencies within the community which are developing programs around certain aspects of child welfare gives ample evidence of social recognition of the new goals, as well as some progress toward their achievement. The widening objectives and programs of public education tend in the same direction. *What is now most needed is a cooperative relationship on the part of all those associated in any manner with the welfare of childhood and youth.*

The chief goal of the modern world is international peace and amity. Education has a tremendous role to play in bringing about an enduring peace among all nations. Undoubtedly, the public schools of the nations must develop a sensitivity in all youth for the brotherhood of man and must exercise leadership in the direction of a united international citizenry.

Those responsible for the administration of public education should keep in mind that the purposes of public education must be focused on the welfare of the child. In some school systems there is little evidence that such is the case; in others, the whole educational process is definitely child centered. The supreme purpose of education should be conceived as the development of rich and many-sided personalities fitted for participation in our American way of life, maintaining high ideals and adequate corresponding knowledge and skills, and devoted to the brotherhood of all men.

A desirable program of school-community relations enters the picture at this point. The development of rich and many-sided personalities in childhood is a cooperative process, entailing responsibilities upon all. As the eye cannot get along without the hand, neither can the school without the home, nor the school and the home without the community. Each becomes necessary to the welfare of the others; all must work together in the interests of childhood and of desirable social living for all men in every community. This is the task of school-community relations. It is a cooperative process and is so conceived in this book. Although the leadership belongs to public education, the responsibility belongs to all.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Comment on the phrase "Democracy is a great social ideal." To what extent are we approaching this ideal?
2. If public education is essential to the more abundant way of social living, why is it not adequately supported generally by the public?
3. How can you account for the wide range of attitude toward public education which may be found even in small communities? Illustrate by reference to a specific community.

4. Do you agree with Professor Beard's statement that the assurance of democratic society can no longer be taken for granted? Where does public education enter this picture?
5. Comment on and compare definitions of education as suggested in this chapter with any others that you may find.
6. Wherein are the seven cardinal principles of education inadequate for modern education? What new principles are advanced in "The Children's Charter"?
7. Analyze "The Children's Charter." Can you allocate responsibilities which belong to the (1) home, (2) school, (3) somewhere within the community.
8. Comment on the following: "Education has a tremendous role to play in bringing about enduring peace among all nations."

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CHAPTER 2

The Equity of the Public in Its Schools

AFTER DINNER that evening, Mary Brown sat with her husband studying the pamphlet which the superintendent had distributed at the parent-teacher association meeting the night before. It said that it cost about \$200 per year to educate each pupil in that community. That seemed a large amount to Mary, and John said, "No wonder taxes are high." The pamphlet further stated that the schools had good teachers and that they were paid good salaries compared with those in neighboring communities. Mary thought that the teachers she knew were good. The pamphlet told how many pupils were in each school, the assessment of the community for schools, how much money was collected in taxes (which interested John), how the money was spent, and many other things which seemed hard to understand. John concluded that he guessed things were in good hands. He knew the superintendent and the board of education quite well. But Mary was not so sure. She was still thinking hard when John



turned to his evening paper. The older children were doing their home work.

The preceding chapter discussed the place and function of the public school in American social living and thinking. We are a democratic people, and we regard our free institutions as necessary for the preservation of our American way. Since the public school is the principal institution established for this purpose, it must be preserved. The American people have a considerable investment in education, not only in capital but in those citizens who give and receive its benefits.

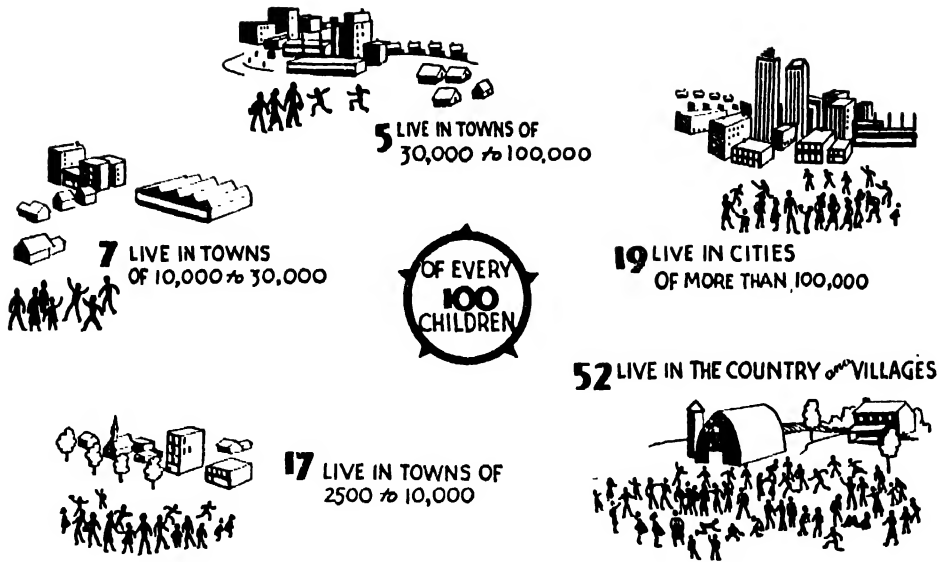
It is the purpose of this chapter to point out the nature of that investment as it relates to the school population, school enrollments, school personnel, and school property. The composition of the wealth as the basis for the support of education will be examined, and educational and other governmental expenditures will be compared.

Since universal public education is essential in a democracy for the preservation of its principles and the development of its children, the American people have a definite and justifiable interest in their established investments in the public school enterprise. These investments are both personal and material. When, however, these material investments are considered along with other expenditures of the American people, one may well ask whether the public schools are receiving that measure of public support necessary to their democratic mission.

POPULATION AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOL

NATURE OF THE POPULATION

In a century and three-quarters, the population of the United States has grown through natural increase and immigration from 2,500,000 in 1776 to more than 150,000,000 in 1950. During the last decade the rate of increase has risen sharply, being higher than for any period since 1921. It is important to note certain trends in the nature of this growth. Owing to the rise in birth rate, the number of young children has considerably increased. There is a decided shift of population towards more urban areas, though not necessarily large cities (which, with some exceptions, have not shown marked increase). Suburban sections seem to be growing rapidly, especially in certain areas. The rural farm population is decreasing in most states.



WHERE THE CHILDREN OF UNITED STATES LIVE

Immigration is not now significant in population growth. Certain sections of the United States, such as California, are rapidly increasing in population, while others are diminishing because of economic or social conditions. Moreover, certain ethnic groups are increasing more rapidly than others, a fact important for consideration. There is a shifting of population within states, within cities, to northern cities, and to far western states, affecting ethnic groups, property values, and economic conditions. These shifts have seriously impeded provision for education in crowded areas through lack of adequate school buildings, personnel, and facilities.

The birth rate determines directly the number of children who must be provided for in the public schools. Since the typical child enters school at the age of six years, predictions of school enrollment must be made well in advance and a long-range program provided. It must also be borne in mind that the replacements in population are predictable in proportion to the number of daughters born who replace the number of women of child-bearing age.

SCOPE OF EDUCATIONAL RESPONSIBILITY

In considering total population, one must note the scope of the educational responsibility borne by the schools of the nation. This is revealed in the following table:

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF YOUTH BY AGE GROUPS (1940 CENSUS)

<i>Age, in Years</i>		<i>Total Popu- lation</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Fe- male</i>	<i>Rural</i>		
					<i>Urban</i>	<i>Non- Farm</i>	<i>Rural Farm</i>
Under 5	10,597,891	8.0	50.6	49.4	47.5	24.1	28.4
5 - 9	10,725,873	8.1	50.8	49.2	47.6	22.9	29.5
10 - 14	11,790,934	9.0	50.6	49.4	49.8	21.4	28.8
15 - 19	12,346,481	9.4	50.1	49.9	52.7	22.2	25.1
Total under 20	45,461,179	34.5
Total 20 and over	96,208,096	65.5
Total United States	131,669,275	100.0	50.2	49.8	56.5	20.5	23.0

It is noted that 34.5 percent of the nation's population—roughly one in three—is under twenty years of age. Exclusion of those under five years of age leaves 26.5 percent—roughly one in four—between the ages of five and twenty. Boys slightly exceed girls in number. Nearly half of all youth live in urban areas. The rural farm areas now contain less than 30 percent of all youth. On the other hand, it is important to note the “aging” of the total population. Life expectancy has risen to nearly seventy years for white females and sixty-five for white males. Negroes average about ten years less. Infant mortality has greatly decreased because of our control over diseases of young children and better care of infants.

These facts and many others in regard to our population are highly important in a study of the problems of the school and the community. Their educational implications affect enrollments, provision for school facilities, the curriculum, personnel, and leadership. Shifting populations directly affect the educational program of children. Then there are the associated problems of community resources, tax resources, adequate financing of the educational enterprise, expansion of school facilities, and the provision for cooperation in developing an adequate educational program. The educational leader will need to be sensitive to these implications in providing for an adequate program of school-community relations.

SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS

In the preceding section, attention has been drawn to the effects of population trends. The following table gives some indication of the school enrollments for which public education is primarily responsible.

The table on page 24 shows that the declining birth rate of the late 'thirties has been reflected in the enrollments above the first grade. The

PUBLIC-SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS BY GRADES

<i>Elementary</i>	<i>1940</i>	<i>1948*</i>
Kindergarten	594,647	989,000
First grade	3,018,463	2,951,000
Second grade	2,333,076	2,363,000
Third grade	2,331,559	2,259,000
Fourth grade	2,321,867	2,183,000
Fifth grade	2,247,692	2,055,000
Sixth grade	2,176,133	1,940,000
Seventh grade	2,107,667	1,898,000
Eighth grade	1,700,994	1,653,000
Total Elementary	18,832,098	18,291,000
<i>Secondary</i>		
First year	2,011,341	1,673,000
Second year	1,767,312	1,503,000
Third year	1,485,603	1,272,000
Fourth year	1,281,735	1,131,000
Post-graduate	55,453	75,000
Total Secondary	6,601,444	5,653,000
Totals	25,433,542	23,945,000

* In nearest thousands.

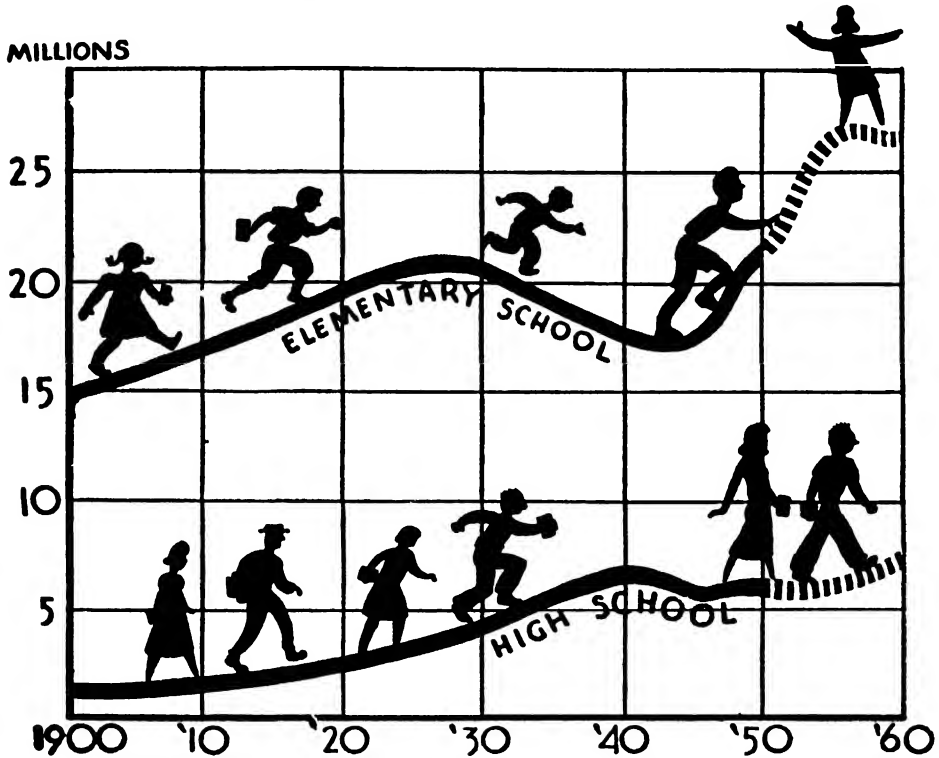
PRIVATE-SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS, 1948

	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Total</i>
Elementary schools and kindergartens	1,232,793	1,218,637	2,451,430
Secondary schools	284,611	317,873	602,484
Totals	1,517,404	1,536,510	3,053,914

PUBLIC- AND PRIVATE-SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS, 1948

Public elementary pupils	18,219,000
Private elementary pupils	2,451,430
Total	20,670,430
Public secondary pupils	5,653,000
Private secondary pupils	602,484
Total	6,255,484
Grand total, all pupils	26,925,914

rising birth rate beginning in the middle 'forties is now being reflected in the enrollments of the elementary grades. For the total population, approximately one person in six is enrolled in the public schools. Of the total number of children 5 to 17 years old inclusive, the percentage of enrollment in the public schools is 85.6. Since the private schools do not include the remaining 14.4 percent, it is obvious that many children in this age bracket, such as migrants lost because of the nonenforcement of compulsory education laws, are not enrolled in any school.



THE GROWTH OF SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS IN PUBLIC
ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOLS

VARIATIONS IN EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY

Public-school children attend school (1948) for an annual average of 155 days, the average length of school term being 177 days. The percentage of attendance for all pupils is about 87. If statistics are studied for the several states, great variations in enrollment, attendance, and school opportunities will be noted, some of which will be pointed out in subsequent discussion. For example, in Maine and Pennsylvania children were attending an average of 165 days annually, whereas in New Mexico and Mississippi children were attending only 143 and 134 days, respectively.

26 • PUBLIC EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY INTEREST

Children in more favored states attend school for a larger number of days owing principally to stricter attendance enforcement of a longer school term. There are still 75,000 one-teacher schools, with an average enrollment of 16.3 pupils. Comparatively few children are served hot lunches daily. Negro children generally do not have equivalent educational opportunities.¹

PERSONNEL OF THE SCHOOL ENTERPRISE

TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATION

In its final analysis, a school is a direct relationship which exists between a teacher and a pupil. Learning, if it is to become functionally efficient, must be properly directed. This can best take place under properly educated and efficient teachers of fine personality. In 1918 there were employed in the United States 861,000 teachers, of whom 18.8 per cent were men. Since most of the men teachers are in the public secondary schools of the nation, children of pre-adolescent years are largely under the direction of female teachers. Over the country as a whole, each teacher taught daily an average of 24 pupils, this number varying considerably among states and among communities. Salaries of teachers in 1948 averaged about \$2639.

To direct this body of teachers and pupils, administrative officers, supervisors, and principals are employed. Although the ratio of these supervisory officers varies in states, there is approximately one such officer to thirty teachers over the nation as a whole.

LAY CONTROL

The lay control of the public schools is vested in school boards and committees composed of members elected by popular vote in the various school districts, or appointed in a few instances by other agencies, such as the courts. These school districts vary in size from the largest cities to small administrative areas having in some instances no teachers and even no public-school pupils. The student of public education is familiar with the local origin of public education which brought this condition about. Although this has kept the control of public education close to the people, it has also created many problems in providing all children with adequate educational opportunities.

¹ "Statistics of State School Systems," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States* (1946-1948).

The school districts in the United States number slightly more than 94,000. States vary greatly in the number of their school districts. The definite trend toward school consolidation is developing a type of school district of sufficient size and scope to provide an adequate and extended educational program for all children of school age. More than 325,000 school board members or trustees represent the electorates in administering these schools. As the over-all number of school districts is gradually diminished, this number is being sharply reduced.

SCHOOL DISTRICTS AND SCHOOL REORGANIZATION

Since education originally developed as a local function, the nature of the school district became associated with the particular political unit prevailing in that state. In New England, the town was characteristic; in the South, the county; in the West, the district; and in others, the township. Districts became known under such names as city, rural, consolidated, central, community, union-high, common school, county, and state. Every year sees the passing of hundreds of the smaller school districts through mergers. Two types of districts are developing: first, the smaller attendance area, and, second, the larger administrative area.

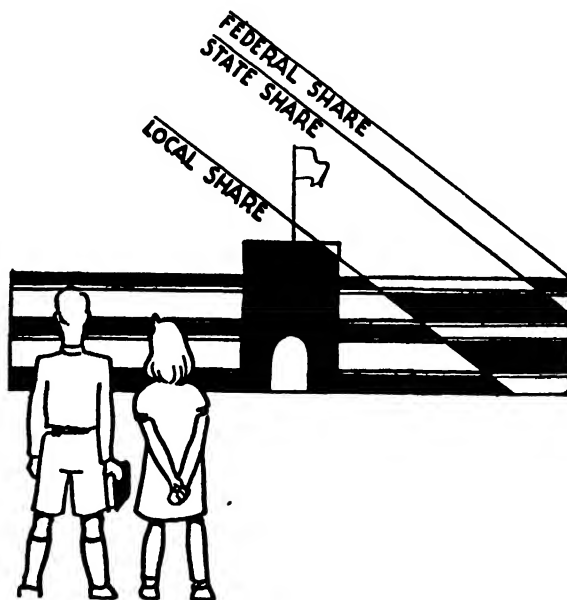
Ideally, the size of an administrative unit is large enough to permit the organization of a complete system of elementary and secondary schools on an efficient financial and educational basis and to provide for adequate services and administrative and supervisory personnel. At the same time it is not so large or so far removed from the citizens that the people will lose interest in their schools. Community interest must be maintained at all costs.

In enlarging educational opportunities for all children, a program of school-community relations becomes highly important. Here the forces of social change clash with the forces of reaction, tradition, and the *status quo*. The welfare of the child in a changing society should be made the focus of attention. Meeting these forces successfully with this objective in mind requires educational leadership of a high order.

CONTROL AS A RELATIONS PROBLEM

Since in a democratic state the will of the people should be adequately expressed, lay control of public education must be properly and efficiently located if the public school is to perform the functions delegated to it. There is no inherent control resident in the school itself, or in any administrative officer or teacher, or in any member of any board of education. Such powers and responsibilities which may seem resident are

delegated powers only, and must be always so considered. However, the school personnel possess inherent rights as citizens, together with such responsibilities as may be delegated by the board of education, by the people of a school district, or by the laws of the state or which grow out of their official administrative or teaching duties. The proper exercise of their responsibilities or free expression within the limitations of their duties may not be denied. Many problems in school-community relations arise through a misconception of the nature of lay control and of the nature and scope of the responsibilities of the school personnel in official capacities.



PROPORTIONATE SHARE OF LOCAL, STATE, AND FEDERAL
FUNDS FOR EDUCATION

INVESTMENT IN SCHOOL PROPERTY

VALUE

In order to provide proper facilities for the children of the public schools, the people have acquired school sites, erected school buildings, and purchased equipment valued, in 1948, at \$9,200,000,000. The average value of school property per pupil enrolled in that year was \$385. It is significant to note the great variations in type, construction, efficiency, and value of school property among the several states. Some idea of the inequalities of community provision for school housing may be seen in

the fact that these values ranged from \$103 per pupil in Alabama to \$713 in New York, more than seven times as much. For the most part this investment in school property has been provided by the people in each school-community.

From time to time the federal government has participated in the erection and improvement of public-school facilities. Many school sites have been developed and school buildings constructed, remodeled, or renovated with funds from other than local sources.

SCHOOL BUILDINGS

In 1946 the number of school buildings in the United States was 196,734 of which 86,563, or 44 percent, were one-room buildings. School facilities represented by the one-teacher school, however, are disappearing rapidly, there being 38,000 fewer such buildings since 1940. The remaining 56 percent consist of structures varying from two- or four-room buildings to handsome high-school structures, well appointed and equipped, housing thousands of school children. There is probably no better evidence of the inadequacy and inequality of educational opportunity provided for our public school children than this great variation in school housing facilities. It is pertinent to inquire whether the educational birth-right of every child does not include an adequate schoolhouse in which a desirable educational program is functioning. This is a major school-community problem.

TITLE

On the principle that education is a function of the state, there are some who argue that all public-school property should be owned outright by the state, built by the state, and maintained by the state, with federal participation under certain conditions. Title would, under this arrangement, pass from the school district, where it now resides, to the people of the state as a whole. This is an interesting proposal, especially when the people of a school district become unable to provide even the barest housing facilities necessary to carry out the minimum educational program.

NEEDS

Since World War II we have been faced with the worst school and college building crisis in our educational history. In a sense this appears to be our principal problem. The reasons for this condition may be summarized as follows: (1) gradually increasing enrollments, (2) population shifts to sections where there are few, if any school buildings, (3) deferment of new construction, (4) deferment of needed repairs and additions

to existing buildings, (5) expansion of curricula, and (6) school consolidation. There is a definite trend toward state aid for capital outlay, nineteen states now providing some assistance to local districts. It is yet too early to anticipate the policy of the federal government in providing funds for school-building construction.

COMPOSITION OF THE NATIONAL WEALTH

VALUE OF PHYSICAL PROPERTY

The United States is a wealthy nation. It took many years of struggle to establish the fundamental principles that (1) this wealth of the nation must support the education of its children, and (2) the safest basis for a system of state public schools is the direct taxation of property for their support. Whether the source of the support is through local taxes, state appropriations, federal support, or all three, the funds eventually come from the wealth and income of the people. Let us now examine the nature and distribution of this wealth.

In 1929, the estimate of our national wealth—that is the valuation placed upon our farms, forests, mines, factories, railroads, homes, goods, and other physical properties—was 460 billion dollars. This is the source from which must come directly or indirectly the funds for building and maintaining the public schools.

Some consideration should be given to the total wealth of the nation's homes, since the public schools are supported principally through taxation on the valuation in real property. The largest single block of wealth consists of dwellings (nonfarm residences). Next in volume of wealth are farms and farm properties. These two items of wealth bear the major support of public education. Next comes personal property, such as clothing, household furnishings, jewelry, and the like. Automobiles may be added to this group. A majority of Americans own their own homes and farms, about half of which are free from mortgages or other debts. Business and manufacturing account for the next grouping of wealth. To the above must be added our forests and mineral properties, our public property as churches, government property, colleges, schools, parks, and all other wealth and investments.

The National Industrial Conference Board estimates the total wealth of the United States to be \$309,420,000,000, distributed as follows: Land and real property, \$166,027,000,000; productive assets, such as live stock, machines, and motor vehicles, \$23,425,000,000; public utilities, \$46,745,000,000; and stocks of goods, \$73,234,000,000. It is well known that wealth

is not equally distributed and its use available in equal amounts to all, since a large proportion of the wealth of the nation is in control of a comparatively small percent of the population. As indicated at the outset, it is from the wealth of the nation that the support of education must come.

It has been obvious to many that such an estimate of wealth is largely an appraisal and is easily changed by inflation or depression. For example, by 1933 the estimated wealth had been reduced to 320 billions. In 1938 the wealth of the nation was estimated at 309 billions. Since that date economists have turned to the more reliable estimate of wealth in terms of income.

WEALTH AS MEASURED BY INCOME

Not wealth in itself but rather the income which the wealth produces is a more reliable measure of value. Hence it may be helpful to examine the national income of the United States. The national income fluctuates with prosperity and depression. War stimulates incomes, and its aftermath often brings on a depression. In 1948, the national income was estimated at 224 billion dollars distributed as follows:

	<i>Billions of Dollars</i>
Compensation of employees	
Largely wages and salaries	137.9
Corporate profits	29.5
Income of unincorporated enterprises	
Business	25.6
Farm income	18.5
Rental income of persons	7.7
Net interest	4.7

The largest amount of income (about 60 percent) was paid out in compensation for employees as wages and salaries.

In considering any figures as to wealth and income, it is important to remember that the principal support of public education comes from real estate held by the small property owner. It follows, then, that the cost of public education, for the most part, is borne out of the income of the small salaried individual, wage earner, and farmer. This is a fact of great significance in school-community relations.

EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION

If we consider that the estimated wealth of the nation is, in round numbers, approximately 325 billion dollars, we note, in comparison, that

the total value of school lands, buildings, and equipment was, in 1946, only \$8,200,000,000. On this basis, approximately 2.5 percent of the wealth of the nation is invested in its public educational facilities. Similarly, out of its income for 1948 of 224 billion dollars, it expended in current expense for its public schools approximately 3 billion dollars, or less than 1.5 percent. Thus a comparatively small proportion of the nation's wealth is invested in, and its income expended for, public education.

Sumner Slichter has suggested² that the output of goods and services, which he estimated at 246.7 billion dollars in 1948, will be at least 416 billion dollars in terms of present prices by 1980. This means an increase per worker from \$4065 to \$5744. He predicts a greater emphasis on education due to a shorter work week, more leisure, higher income, and better development and distribution of our resources and services. The proportion of people completing high school and spending some time in college will rise. He predicts that the arts will flourish in the United States as never before in the history of the world. Upon education, for the most part, will rest the means for such a development. To fulfill this prediction will require a far greater measure of support.

EDUCATION AND OTHER INVESTMENTS COMPARED

Education is one of the largest of our national enterprises. Only six industries—manufacturing, agriculture, railroads, oil, lumber, and electricity—represent a capital investment more valuable than public school property. Only four—agriculture, construction, railroads, and textiles—employ more people. In many communities, public education is the largest single business enterprise, representing the largest original investment, the largest number of employees, the largest share of the income of the people expended, and a program that reaches into every home.

In comparing educational with other types of investments, we must keep in mind the nature and purposes of education; the returns of business and production are immediate and usually tangible and those of education delayed and less tangible.

EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURES COMPARED WITH OTHER EXPENDITURES

Since it was noted in a previous section that scarcely 1.5 percent of the national income is spent for education, we can measure the willingness of a nation to expend for its schools by comparing these expenditures with others. Naturally, food and housing make a first claim on one's

² "How Big in 1980?" *The Atlantic*, 184, No. 5 (Nov. 1949), pp. 39-43.

income. According to the U. S. Department of Commerce 1946 figures, more money is spent nationally for medical care, transportation, tobacco, life insurance, and recreation than for public education. For intoxicating liquors, the national bill in 1947 was \$9,640,000,000, more than three times as much as for public education. Even amusements, soft drinks, ice cream, chewing gum, toilet preparations, and beauty treatments cost the American people amounts unduly large in proportion to the amounts they spent for the education of their children. These facts, which seem to give some indication of what the people may consider of value for income expended, must be considered carefully when increases in expenditures for education are proposed.

STATE EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION IN RELATION TO OTHER GOVERNMENTAL EXPENDITURES

In view of the fact that education is a state-supported governmental function, it should be of interest to compare the amounts and percentages of other state expenditures with that for education. The following table shows the amounts and percentages for the year 1946. If one includes expenditures for both public education and all other educational institutions, about one fifth of all state money is spent for education as compared with one fourth in 1932. Expenditures for public education, however, have risen sharply in most states since 1946.

Any analysis of these figures must take into consideration the sharp decline in the value of the dollar since 1939. If 1939 is used as a base year, the dollar has a purchasing power now of less than sixty cents. Although school costs have risen sharply within a decade, especially since 1946, it is essential to consider this reduction in purchasing power along with any analysis of school expenditures.

EXPENDITURES BY STATE GOVERNMENTS, 1946³

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Purpose</i>	<i>Amount, in thousands</i>	<i>Percent</i>
1	Welfare	1,054,906	16.48
2	Highways	970,860	15.17
3	Public elementary and secondary schools	936,202	14.62
4	Health and hospitals	425,619	6.65
5	State educational institutions	324,840	5.07
6	Safety and correction	235,107	3.67
	All other government expenditures	2,454,611	38.34
			100.00

³ "Statistics of State Progress in Public Education," *Research Bulletin*, National Education Association, XXV, No. 4 (Dec. 1947).

INEQUALITIES OF EXPENDITURES FOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS

One of the most disheartening realizations with respect to national expenditures for public education is the pronounced inequality of these expenditures among the several states and, indeed, often within the same state. For the country as a whole, the annual cost per pupil in average daily attendance is \$179. But note the great range. New York spends \$256; New Jersey \$250; Montana \$247; Washington \$237; and Illinois \$223; whereas Mississippi spends \$71; Arkansas \$92; Georgia \$103; and Alabama \$106. Thus, New York spends nearly four times as much as Mississippi.

More is spent for senior high school education than for junior high school education, and more is spent for both than for elementary education. More money is expended for the education of urban and suburban children than for rural children. Better prepared teachers teaching for higher salaries and for longer school terms and with better facilities are teaching in cities and suburban communities than in rural communities. White children have greater educational advantages generally than Negro children. The children of higher economic and social groups enjoy better school facilities than those in lower economic circumstances. How to extend educational opportunities adequately for all children without regard to conditions of race, creed, geographical distribution, wealth, or other circumstances is one of the most important school-community problems. We are far from answering it.

PUBLIC SCHOOL INVESTMENT AND SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

The American public school, as we have seen, is the embodiment of the principles of democracy. In order to achieve the great ideals of our form of social living, a great investment in public education has come to be made which encompasses the formal learning periods of childhood from the kindergarten and elementary school through the junior and senior high schools and, more recently, in some communities, through postgraduate classes and the junior college. The American people have been willing not only to provide this original investment but to expend annually large sums for the continued support of education. Roughly one out of every five persons is a recipient of the benefits of the public school, although these benefits are distributed quite unequally among

the various states and communities of these states. Many school-community relations problems arise from educational disadvantages. Rural school children do not enjoy the same opportunities as their city cousins, in spite of the fact that the spirit of democracy implies on the part of each the equal acceptance of political and social responsibility. Rural education constitutes about one-third of the nation's educational task, with nearly ten million farm children enrolled in the public elementary and secondary schools. The typical rural American school is still today the little red schoolhouse, taught by one of nearly two hundred thousand elementary teachers.

Yet we are rapidly becoming a mobile population. For many reasons population groups are moving cityward and suburbward, necessitating many changes and raising problems for these types of school districts. The consolidation movement is growing rapidly, with transportation as a necessary accompaniment. The automobile and the trailer are giving rise to educational problems of large proportions. If we estimate conservatively three members to a family living in a trailer, which would include one child, about 400,000 children of school age are living in trailer homes. Far too many children are migrants, traveling from crop to crop and living under substandard conditions. These, too, are entitled to adequate education.

Since education is lay controlled, and since this control is exercised more directly in the smaller communities, it is not difficult to conclude that there is a relation between the investment of the public in its public schools and what it should expect of that investment. The extent of this investment, for the most part, is in direct relation to community attitudes and ideals towards public education, viewed in the light of the economic ability of the community. Even with increased state or federal support, local attitudes and ideals remain a force which must always be considered.

The student of school-community problems must study community attitudes and relationships. Communities may be deeply resentful of attempts to "improve" the schools or to increase school costs if such attempts are not in harmony with community attitudes and ideals. Strong leadership is necessary to bring about a good educational program where this condition exists.

Suffice it to say at this point that the schools belong to the people. They have established them and they support them; they expand or retard them in accordance with peculiar economic and social conditions and attitudes. It is all a part of the democratic process. Public-school officers and teachers

are the stewards employed for the educational purposes intended. In the proper recognition of these principles and in the closeness of the cooperation secured will democracy's educational purposes be best secured for childhood.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Prepare arguments justifying the following in relation to public schools in a democracy: (a) compulsory attendance, (b) public control of the curriculum, (c) state support, (d) local support and control, (e) educational accountability.
2. What are some present-day effects of population trends in public-school enrollments? At the present rate, venture some predictions as to enrollments on various grade levels in 1955, 1967, 1970. What is the relation to economic cycles?
3. What is the relation of population trends to: (a) school building needs, (b) teacher preparation, (c) school support?
4. What arguments would you advance in behalf of public interest in population trends and their effects on the public schools?
5. What is the relation of desirable class size to number of teachers in the public schools of the United States? of Pennsylvania?
6. What are points of contact which any reorganization plan of education has with the public?
7. To what extent do the following constitute school-community problems: (a) wealth of a community in relation to school support? (b) community attitudes and ideals and school opportunities?
8. Factual data such as those indicated in this chapter should be constantly revised as new information is available. Give examples.

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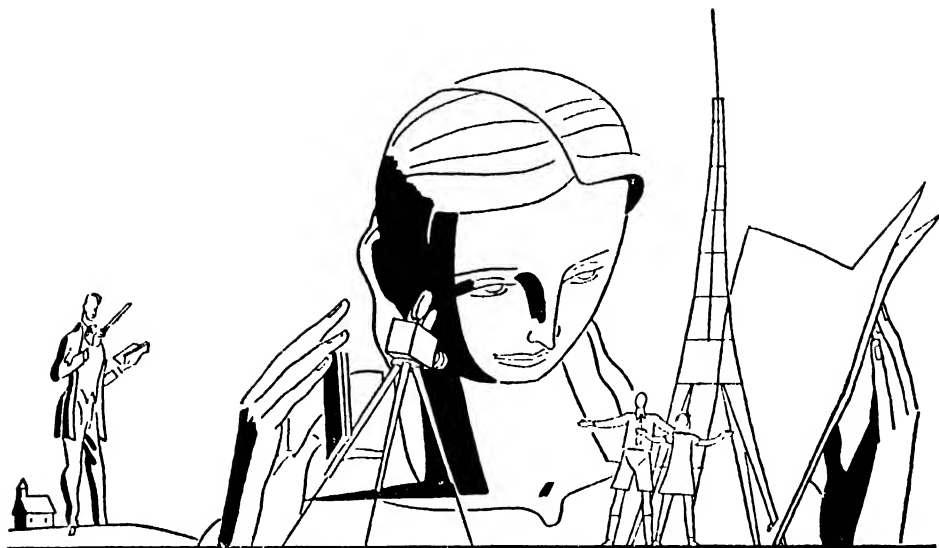
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CHAPTER 3

Community Interest in Education

WHEN Grandmother Brown came to pay her weekly visit, Mary Brown was reading the morning newspaper. It was Saturday, and the annual football game with the town across the river was scheduled for that afternoon. The children had been greatly excited about it ever since the pep meeting on Friday. They wanted Grandmother to go along with their parents to see the game, and especially to hear the band and the cheering. But Grandmother's thoughts went back many years to the little red school-house she knew as a girl, and to which she trudged through snow and mud all winter long. She described to them the jacketed stove, the hickory stick, the blue-backed speller, the procession of classes, and the games at recess. Mary, in turn, recounted her school days, the children being good listeners. John concluded that school must have been very dull in those days without football games, and Susan wondered how Grandmother ever got to school through those deep snows. Rose Marie just sat and listened.

We have seen that public education must be closely identified with community living. Its objectives and program must be attuned to the

welfare of the people who compose it—especially its boys and girls. Educational leaders have now come to accept the maintenance of satisfying school-community relationships as a vital function of school administration. As a specific function, it is scarcely older than three decades. The school and the community have always, however, been closely identified. The people through many generations have maintained a genuine interest in their schools, participating in many ways. Wherever children have been concerned, men and women have sought ways and means to study their problems and further their development.

Educational patterns reflect the ideas, attitudes, and purposes of social patterns. While the public school influences a community, it is in turn profoundly influenced by the people who compose that community. To a large extent education is the reflection of the popular will. This is expressed in many ways. It may take the form of a mutual concern for the common good, a demand for a forward-looking program, or it may undergo a sudden transformation and emerge as a pressure group concerned only with some selfish end. In each community both types of force are constantly at work and often at variance.

It is the purpose of this chapter to point out that early community life was in itself an educational force, that there were many aspects of the public-school enterprise in which the people of the community had a definite part, that many of these activities and influences persist to the present day, that the public-school curriculum has come to be molded by many external influences, and that interest and pressure groups, many of them highly organized, are now influencing the public schools in many ways. The student of school-community relations should be sensitive to these influencing situations and constantly alert to appraise that influence.

CHANGING EMPHASIS IN EDUCATION

Before proceeding to a specific discussion of community life as an educational force, let us pause to sketch briefly four periods through which education seems to have progressed and the nature of the community emphasis in each period. First to be noted is that period in which our forefathers established public schools to safeguard the principles of religion and popular government in which they believed. Naturally, they began with those ideas and procedures which were transplanted from other cultures. As the colonists struggled to meet the problems of their time, however, they evolved an American pattern, colored by conditions as they knew them. Since *religion* was a fundamental of colonial living, it became the characterizing aspect of the colonial schools. After the Revolution, as the citizens of the new states struggled to perpetuate the

democratic principles for which they had fought, a *political* motive characterized society. Democracy had to be preserved through an educated citizenry who understood its meaning and who were devotedly prepared to defend its principles. The third period—the great expansion of the public-school system beginning about 1890—was characterized by the remarkable development of the American high school, compulsory attendance, expansion in buildings and equipment, and the beginning of scientific procedures applied to education. Throughout this movement the *economic* motive persisted as a dominating characteristic of public education, reflecting the great economic development of our country. We are now undoubtedly in a fourth period in American education, which began about 1930—a period in which public education is faced with the problem of sharing, if not leading, in the socioeconomic reconstruction of society, looking to a new social order with its many implications of social justice for all mankind. Here is a tremendous challenge for education.¹

EARLY COMMUNITY LIFE AS AN EDUCATIONAL FORCE

Two compelling forces seem to react upon all institutions, on education among them: one, that force which seeks to preserve the past, to retain the “tried and true,” often termed the conservative or static force; the other, a dynamic force, one that desires change, to try the new, to eliminate the old. These forces tend to react against each other, seemingly “irresistible” forces attempting to move “immovable” bodies. Social tradition often moves slowly upon the impact of social change.

In earlier periods of American educational history, the public was, in many ways, a much greater community force. The education of the children was in reality controlled by the people of that community. The school lived close to these people. It taught subjects which they understood. In fact, laymen examined the teacher as well as the pupils as to the teachings. The following passage² illustrates the spirit of the public school more than one hundred years ago:

In a frontier region in 1833, stood a little church and across the road from it, a log schoolhouse. These formed the center of a community, the axis about which community life revolved. All the children of the neighborhood attended the frontier school. The teacher boarded 'round. The school-

¹ For a discussion of these periods in American education, see “The Teacher and Society,” *The First Yearbook of the John Dewey Society* (D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937), Chap. I.

² “Teacher and Public,” *Eighth Yearbook*, Department of Classroom Teachers (National Education Association, Feb. 1934), p. 11.

house was the scene of public meetings and elections. Lectures, spelling bees, ciphering matches, and other cultural-social events were held there also. School affairs were matters of common knowledge. There was not a person in the neighborhood who could not name immediately the paltry wages of the schoolmaster. Likewise, other school costs were matters requiring direct knowledge and direct action. As to the work of the school—of course, everyone knew about that. Who didn't remember the night when Deacon Jones spelled the master down on "phthalimide"! All admired the master's writing and liked to hear him read. They knew that he was good at figures too—with the exception of fractions. His methods of discipline, his personal interests, his mannerisms, in short, his every move was under direct observation.

The author of this passage used it to indicate community interest and response in the earlier public schools. He had in mind the fact that these community schools were responsive to the community to a far greater degree than the modern school, and indeed this has been true in many localities. If education is to make proper adjustments of its citizens to the social pattern and, at the same time, assist in bringing about those desirable changes which must be made as society develops, then public education should lie close to the people. In this regard the people of an earlier generation had a certain awareness as to what the public school was doing to supplement the activities of the church and the home.

THE SCHOOLS IN EARLY COMMUNITIES

It is important to note at the outset that although the home and the community existed long before public schools came to be well established, the people through time came to realize the school's primary importance as a fundamental functional institution of society.³ Indeed, as has previously been pointed out, the public school was established as a supplemental institution of society to perform those activities then deemed desirable by society, and which could seemingly be performed better in an institution of this character. Certainly no one—perhaps not even Horace Mann, in these earlier years—foresaw the American public school as an institution of present magnitude.

In a modern sense, the early public schools were not strictly public, since free public schools did not appear until long after the Revolutionary

* The writer is indebted to Carbus Clare Magee, *Evidences of Community Interest in the Early Public Schools* (Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1938), for a considerable body of the material used in this discussion. This dissertation contains interesting and valuable school-community relations material gathered principally from primary sources.

War. Perhaps it would be more accurate to say that in colonial days, for the most part, they were publicly originated and controlled. Usually this control was exercised through the town meeting, as in New England, or the monthly Meeting of Friends, as in Pennsylvania. Dominant to a degree was the church, exercising its influence over state and people. And so in New England, largely through the town meeting, the early schools came to be established under mandates of the colonial legislatures. Here land was set aside, the location of the school and the means of support determined, and control subsequently exercised. Even all the internal affairs of the school became matters of general concern. These matters included selection of teachers, hours of instruction, the time for catechizing, and the use of corporal punishment.

People thought about education in terms of their own community. Towns were charged with full responsibility for the enforcement of laws, the amount of support, the salary of the teacher, and the length of the school term. This responsibility came to be assumed by the selectmen and later by the school committee.

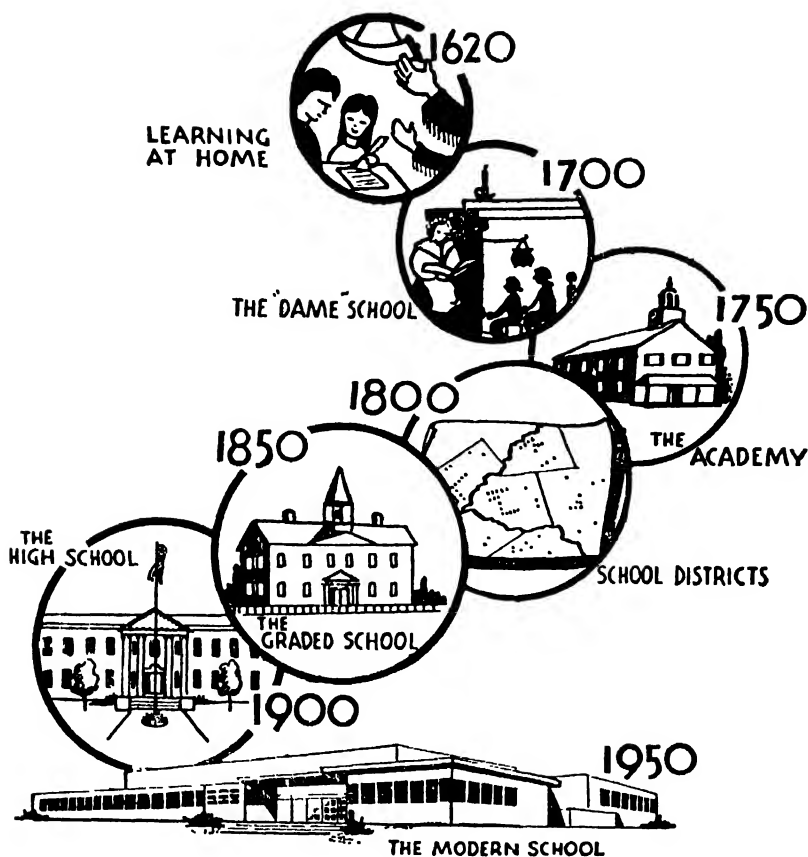
In Pennsylvania education was encouraged under the benevolent policy of William Penn. Indeed, the Friends favored a good education for their children and placed educational matters and problems for consideration before the monthly Meeting.

With the Revolutionary War came the great democratic movement, for the perpetuation of which an enlightened citizenry was necessary. The natural outcome was the establishment of the free school systems of the states during the first half of the nineteenth century, typified by the Free School Act of Pennsylvania, passed in 1834. Education became a function of the state. Although a new form of state control was set up, varying degrees of local control were retained which persist to the present time.

SUPERVISING THE EARLY SCHOOLS

Community interest in education in the early schools did not cease once the school was established. The exercise of supervision was continued through various means. More recently, supervision has acquired meaning in terms of professional overseeing of the instructional process. In the earlier schools, it was scarcely more than a crude inspection.

The stages in the development and exercise of local school supervision may be summarized as follows: (1) the community through its town meeting, (2) the community through its visiting committees, and (3) the community through its supervisory officer. There was no hard and fast distinction between the administrative and supervisory processes, nor in the



EVOLUTION OF ORGANIZED EDUCATION FROM COLONIAL DAYS

earlier years was either process considered a professional function. One need not to go far afield today to find communities holding similar beliefs.

Out of the town meeting came the regulatory function. Masters were dismissed for unacceptable work. The ministers were often delegated to exercise certification functions and determine moral fitness. Visiting committees inspected the schools to ascertain "what proficiency the children under their care have made, or are likely to make, in reading, writing, and arithmetic." After enumeration of the children, their duties extended to inspecting performances of the children, hearing complaints, leaving a record of the visit, and attending the annual dinner usually held on these occasions.

However, inspection methods varied in communities and changed with time. Ministers and selectmen usually made up the personnel of the committees.*In committees under Dutch influence, the rules were strict concerning the license of the teacher and the separation of the boys and

the girls; yet there was little visitation on the part of the town commissioners. In Pennsylvania monthly visits to the schools preceded the monthly Meeting. Prizes were often awarded by the parents for good work.

Supervisory visitation was an occasion for much fanfare. The chief inspector was a very important personage, his committee members none the less so. Pupils were expected to "make their manners" promptly. Catechizing the pupils was the order of the day, with many moral precepts interjected for good measure. The inspection concluded, the inspector's report was listened to with solemnity befitting his seeming grasp of the situation and the expectation of the listeners.

EARLY TEACHER RELATIONSHIPS WITH THE COMMUNITY

In the early schools, the nature of the relationships of the teacher with the community he served was a far greater indication of his success and influence than would seem now to be the case. The early schoolmaster found it advisable to enter into community affairs. In fact, this seemed almost essential in such closely knit and dependent community living. In the community he taught both by precept and example. He was in demand at the village church, the spelling bee, the singing schools, or the literary society, as well as at huskings and other social affairs. As he maintained strict discipline, he was the more respected. Boarding around among the homes brought him closer to the lives of the people. And his virtues or his vices were clearly apparent to them.

Selecting the master usually demanded diligent care. Towns close to colleges and universities enjoyed the advantage of better prepared teachers, whereas, then as now, a sparse population, undesirable conditions, and a small salary could attract only those of lesser worth and esteem. Matters of religion, salary, and local requirements entered into the selection. Could he sing? Could he discipline? Did he post his rules? Did he lead a moral life? These and other qualifications were sought in the master. Yet with all of these virtues, it was a rare teacher perhaps whose impression upon the community life equalled or even approached that of the minister, and his material rewards scarcely afforded him a living. Occasionally, great teachers arose, such as Ezeziel Cheever, Nathan Hale, Horace Mann, Evert Pietersen, Thomas Makin, Anthony Benezet, John Todd, and Christopher Dock—men whose names have survived their day and generation.

Boarding around the community was a custom practiced over wide areas for many generations. By dividing the number of days in the school term by the number of pupils in the school, it was determined how many

days the master should make his home at the home of each of his pupils. Where there was only one child in the school, perhaps the master would stay at his house not more than two or three days. With a large family possibly he would remain a week or more. Thus the master peregrinated through the district, constantly changing his domicile. This custom, largely confined to the small town and rural areas, persisted for many generations throughout the northeastern United States. Usually an unmarried man, often with an eye on the ministry or the law, the teacher followed this practice to eke out his small salary. His presence quickened the life of the household. Best dishes were brought out and dainties reserved only for festive occasions appeared on the table. The wife and children "spruced up" for the occasion. If not too sleepy after the heavy meal, the master was expected to "season [the evening] with intelligent conversation," expatiate on the news of the day, or delight the children with stories. Rocking the baby was not the least among his manners to please the good housewife. Sometimes, prim and reserved, he sat in the best seat, feared if not hated by the youngsters, who breathed a sigh of relief upon his departure.

Severity of discipline was demanded by the community. "Spare the rod and spoil the child" meant a liberal application of the hickory stick, as well as the use of other punitive devices which today would be viewed as bordering on the diabolical. Later, prizes came to be offered as rewards on visiting day. In Philadelphia, expulsion was countenanced. Teachers as well as pupils were barred out. The teacher who governed by gentle suasion was exceedingly rare, being considered of little value in bringing up children. Of course, there were notable exceptions.

EARLY SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

Much that has been said in this chapter thus far has concerned the teacher and the pupil as the combined center of community control, interest, and relationships. The schoolhouse, too, emerged as the center of community interest. The community went *to the school* both for events conducted under the auspices of the school and for those events and activities of an educational nature in which there was community interest.

Many of the singing schools which were first established in New England and flourished for more than one hundred years in other colonies and states were held in the schoolhouse. Membership was not confined to any sex or age group. The primary purpose of the singing school was to improve the church music, although it was plain to see that the social life of the community found expression here. Without doubt it was the

principal stimulus for the development of public-school music, which came at a later period. The singing schools contributed markedly to the development of a common interest in the public schools.

Closely allied with this movement was the literary society, with its debates and declamations. A direct outgrowth was the Lyceum movement. Originating in Massachusetts in 1826, it spread rapidly through the country during the century. Its principal objects were the advancement of education, especially the common schools, and the diffusion of knowledge, as well as the promotion of all projects for social betterment. Many of the ablest men of the time lectured on its platforms and promoted educational activity through this means. It was a direct forerunner of the Chautauqua movement. It stimulated the university-extension movement of more recent development and provided a popular means of social intermingling. Lectures and other activities of a similar educational nature were held in the schoolhouse, which became the center for the community's social life, particularly of the younger generation.

For more than a century, the time-honored three, readin', 'ritin', and 'rithmetic, along with the Bible, held the entire field of elementary education. About 1750 spelling came into the schools, largely as a means to improve the work in the English language. Perhaps to Noah Webster more than any other individual goes the credit for the spelling movement. Webster's "blue-backed" speller was destined to reform spelling in the United States and indirectly caused the fetish for spelling accuracy out of which grew the spelling-bee--a form of diversion in which the entire community often participated.

There seems to be little evidence that parents and patrons visited the early schools frequently while in session. Visits of parents to the schools were occasioned by quarter-day exercises, school picnics, and literary and other school programs. By 1800 in many sections of New England, it was customary a day or two before the end of the term to invite the parents to attend a public exhibition. Quite often this exhibition coincided with the supervisory visit of the school committee. Best pieces of handwriting were often displayed, frequently with decorative borders. At the accompanying exercises, prizes were distributed to deserving pupils. Public exercises were held consisting of reading, spelling, and the recitation of single pieces and dialogues. Anticipation of the exercises kept teacher, pupils, and parents on edge throughout the winter term.

A school treat usually accompanied the exercises. Often they were the occasion for a school picnic at noon, with plenty to eat and drink. Gingerbread, fried chicken, raisins, candy, and other delicacies enlivened the occasion for the inner man.

These genuine community affairs, to which mothers brought their babies, and grandmothers their knitting and wool to pick, constituted the only means of reporting school progress, largely superseded later by the report card, and more recently by public exercises and exhibitions of a not too dissimilar nature. All wore their Sunday clothes. If the day was a success, the master had done well and he would likely receive a call for another year.

Thus the schoolhouse became the community center. It can fairly be said that the present-day commencement programs have their roots in the old quarter-day and closing exercises of the early schools. The people came to the school. Gradually, in many communities, the school became the educational center from which was to radiate the whole educational program.

EXTERNAL INFLUENCES AND THE WORK OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL

The evidences of community interest in the early public schools bear witness that education of an earlier day became a definite part of the community life and thought. The source of control lay close to the people, since state supervision was yet to come. Perhaps this fact of control has been one continuing cause, and an important one, of community interest.

Through the years the work of the public school⁴ has been molded by many external influences. What is being taught has come to be a direct reflection of what the people wish for their children. The work of the public school, as Charles H. Judd⁵ has aptly pointed out, has been determined by two forces: tradition and usefulness. Subjects which were found to be useful at one time became traditionally acceptable long after their usefulness had been outlived. "Tradition," he has said, "is an unsafe guide in a changing society, because values which were once important disappear."

EVOLUTION OF THE CURRICULUM

Education, then, is not only an agency for cultural reproduction but must also serve as a means of improving that culture. One of the responsibilities of the school is to discern developing and desirable social and economic trends. New and changed educational objectives as they refer to the curriculum must have popular acceptance before they can be in-

⁴"Work of the public school," here referred to is intended to mean all activities constituting the school's program, both curricular and so-called extracurricular.

⁵Charles H. Judd, *Education and Social Progress* (Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1934), p. 52.

corporated into the educational program. Educational leadership must always function with a finger on the public pulse.

The earliest schools were concerned only with the reproduction of the simple arts of communication, popularly known as the three R's. Along with the cultural development of the American people came increased demands on the public schools to include a wider range of learning reproductive of that development. Along with the economic development of community living came demand for training in vocational skills. Advances in the fine arts, the arts of communication, the industrial arts, and the sciences, and the stresses on religious education and character education give some indication of the phenomenal growth of American public education from a simple to a complex institution for the perpetuation of the American way of life.

SOME SPECIFIC INFLUENCES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CURRICULUM

Many subjects now a part of the public-school curriculum came in response to demands *from outside the schools*.⁶ Drawing came into the schools as a result of petitions by Massachusetts manufacturers who were competing unsuccessfully with certain European firms in matters of design. These men felt that the usefulness of drawing as a school subject would have potential value in the greater sale of goods in which artistic design was of importance. Vocational education in the public schools became necessary through the passing of the apprentice system and the increasing need for trained workers to compete with Europe and Japan. The United States Chamber of Commerce cooperated with manufacturers in securing Congressional legislation in support of vocational education. Safety education, according to Professor Judd, became a necessary part of the public-school curriculum because of the hazards of a new means of transportation—the automobile. The National Safety Council was organized in 1913 and extended its efforts to safety education involving all forms of hazards due to the mechanized age. Many states followed, making safety education a requirement for public school teaching.

The curricula of most public schools contain material to be taught as a part of the work of the school, some of which is contributed free of charge by outside agencies. The larger life-insurance companies have been active for many years in promoting health education. Teachers everywhere are familiar with their pamphlets, many of which have been added to the reading lists of public-school children. The stimulation of interest in the care of teeth, especially children's teeth, has been an influence from

⁶ *Ibid.*, Chap. III.

outside the school. The schools' encouragement of personal thrift came about largely as a result of the efforts of the American Bankers' Association and many local banks. School banking service has for many years been extended to public-school children in the schools by local bank officials. Although many of the school savings schemes formerly in operation have been discontinued, considerable free literature is still available.

Many other subjects and activities now a part of the public school curriculum came in because of well-intentioned interests on the part of organized groups. The evil effects of alcohol and the general care of the body were made a part of the school's program because of the influence of groups opposed to the use of alcohol—especially the Woman's Christian Temperance Union and allied organizations. The teaching of citizenship has been sponsored by the American Bar Association, the American Legion, and many fraternal organizations. These are but a few illustrations of external influences upon the school's program. It would be interesting to study the motives of groups which are interested in passing legislation making the teaching of certain subjects mandatory or prohibited in the public schools.⁷

THE CURRICULUM AS AN ASPECT OF THE SOCIAL ORDER

As Judd has pointed out, the curriculum, like the school itself, is an aspect of the general social order. The school does and should expand or contract in conformity with the expansion and contraction of social interests. Changes in the work of the school have been influenced by many and diverse interests. Public-school officials have, however, probably too often compromised with representations made by so-called "well-meaning but narrow-minded groups," which have offered suggestions and brought about pressure for the inclusion of material to be taught in public schools. The conclusion of this matter can be summarized as follows: first, the public schools must not expect laymen of themselves to formulate the public-school curriculum; second, educators possess no inherent rights in *themselves* to formulate the work of the public schools to disregard the mandates of the legislature, or to disdain the suggestions of community, state, or national groups for public-school improvement. It would seem a better policy for each community through careful cooperative planning, scientific investigation, and full accord to formulate its educational program in the light of desirable, changing democratic social ideals, keeping constantly in mind state mandates and the needs and interests of all its citizens.

⁷ See in this connection, James D. Shaner, *Legislative Control of the Elementary Curriculum* (Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1941).

RESULTS OF SCIENTIFIC INVESTIGATION

Those responsible for the work of the public schools should be familiar with scientific findings in many fields. In the erection of school buildings, we have available much that science has taught us. Much has been learned as to the size of school buildings, shape and internal patterns, lighting and color improvements, and construction of walls and floors. Only in more fortunate localities have these findings been applied to any degree to schoolhouses now in use. Thousands of school buildings are today scarcely fit homes for children, while thousands of school children are housed in school buildings condemned as unfit for this purpose, because of unsafe floors, walls, or foundations, because they are fire-traps, or because of unhygienic conditions. Here is a pressing school-community problem, for the *home* in which the child lives for so much of his school time should be as safe and as hygienic as the most desirable home one should wish for his own child. The scientific findings may well serve as a criterion against which the merits of external influences may be judged.

PUBLIC SCHOOL PROGRAM AND NEW DISCOVERIES

Science has taught us much about school equipment. School desks have been made more adaptable to growing bodies and the learning processes. Toilet facilities are more hygienic. Printing techniques are producing better school books, conserving eyesight, and applying the principles and techniques of visual education long utilized by industry and advertising. Pictures and other sensory materials are now being utilized in good teaching. We have only recently discovered that taking children *out* of the school for educational purposes to study community life as found in art galleries, industry, business, and community affairs is not only desirable but educationally more productive.

INFLUENCES UPON SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION PATTERNS AND PROCEDURES

School administrative organization patterns have been influenced by Army methods and by industrial administrative lines of responsibility. Many aspects of business management, especially school accounting, have been copied from methods of business and accountancy. Since in many school districts the "business manager" is the secretary of the school board,⁸ he is guided only by such accounting methods with which he may be familiar, excepting of course such as may be mandated or suggested by specific state law or regulation, which may, or more often may not, be

⁸ See Clarence W. Peters, *Secretary of the Board of Education in Small School Systems* Ph.D. Dissertation (University of Pittsburgh, 1937).

found in operation. Where control of school finances lies in some municipal authority, such as the town meeting, citizens *en masse* may direct the amount and manner of all school expenditures.

Intelligence and other forms of tests, devised originally to classify Army personnel, have been taken over bodily, or in some instances adapted, for public school purposes. Development of intelligence and achievement tests is a significant phenomenon in public education.

The field of teaching has been profoundly influenced through the invention and application of visual aids. Many of the earlier films shown in the schools were short entertainment reels, or films developed by utilities and business concerns. Motion pictures subsequently came to be developed as teaching aids and have been adapted to classroom teaching. Education has lagged for many years in the application of the motion picture to the learning process. The radio has educational possibilities as yet unrealized in the schools, although some effort is being made to broadcast educational programs for school purposes. Television is a new arrival and has already caught the imagination of the public. Other audio-visual aids of interest and significance include models and specimens, field trips, exhibits, museums, demonstrations, dramatic participation, graphic materials, and pictures of all descriptions.⁹

PUBLIC EDUCATION AND UNORGANIZED SOCIAL PRESSURES

Our discussion about the influences and modifications that have taken place in public education through the activities of organized groups made no attempt to appraise these influences, except to point them out as examples of society's response to one of its institutions. Let us now turn our attention to examples of unorganized social pressures which offer, in the main, adverse criticism of the public schools and its progress.

RETRENCHMENT DEMANDS

One of the most persistent groups of critics of public education include those whose motives are induced through conviction, valid or invalid, that education is costing too much, taxes are too high, there are too many "fads and frills" in education, salaries are too high, and the whole structure is not well managed. These groups include taxpayers, unemployed groups, real estate operators, and disgruntled citizens. Attacks are accentuated during periods of economic depression or as a result of evidence of mismanagement or poor business policies. Where honest local relief is sought from state or federal sources, there can be no objection to

⁹ Edgar Dale, *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching* (The Dryden Press, 1946).

such pressures provided that the end sought is a sound program for the boys and girls. *It must always be remembered that good education, like good clothes, costs more than poor education. The quality of education in any community is generally as good or as poor as the willingness of the citizens to pay for it.*

RECOGNITION OF EDUCATIONAL NEEDS

Too often the educational ills of a school system are not recognized by its educational leadership until pressures are brought about by some intelligent citizens. One group of citizens demands expansion of the educational program in the direction of increased services, better school facilities, or an expanded program. Another group insists on the addition of religious education to the public-school curriculum. A third group believes that the schools do not fit the children for life's responsibilities. A fourth group wants more emphasis on citizenship and patriotism. Still another insists that a better football team is an essential; they are opposed by those who point to the overstressing of athletics in general. Then there are always those who insist that discipline is bad, methods poor, the teachers incompetent, or the school board should be replaced.

Many of these suggestions are well meant and have a considerable amount of truth and desirability. Many are insidious and entirely without merit, but difficult to deal with because of the points of attack and the leadership behind them. It is here that educational leadership of a high order emerges. To meet such demands effectively, an educational leader must know his school as well as his community and the people in it. He will need to know education—its objectives and its program. Too often educational leaders have had forced upon their consideration matters of educational importance which they should have been far-seeing enough to recognize and develop as a part of a necessary educational program in a changing social order. Too often educational leadership has been content to ride the educational "band wagon" driven by noneducational forces, especially on occasions when educational changes and retrenchments known to be undesirable and educationally unsound have been foisted on or retained in the educational program. In such instances educational leaders have become "educational followers," fearful of championing the rights of childhood lest their positions be jeopardized or their livelihood curtailed. It is obvious that here is an opportunity to display sound leadership. Those "pseudo leaders" who find clerical duties satisfying and office routines pleasant may need to abandon or delegate these responsibilities for the stern realities of real community leadership associated with the educational program of the public school.

OPERATION OF INTEREST AND PRESSURE GROUPS IN COMMUNITIES

CLASSIFICATION OF GROUPS

Much that has been written concerning the nature and operation of interest and pressure groups concerns education in the nation as a whole. Little has been ascertained concerning their activities and influence in the communities in which they operate or the reactions of school and community groups to these activities. To this end an intensive study was made in selected communities in Pennsylvania, Ohio, and West Virginia, representing a cross section of communities as to population, types of school districts, and other representative factors which would give a true picture of interest and pressure groups. Information was obtained from members of boards of education, superintendents, principals, and teachers. From a preliminary study of interest and pressure groups, a total of 82 different groups was classified and submitted with the request that the nature of the group be indicated, its effect upon the school rated on a five-point scale varying from very beneficial to very harmful, and the nature of the objective relationship to the schools pointed out. The classification as to the nature of the group, its interest rank, and pressure rank are shown in the following:¹⁰

<i>Nature of group emphasis</i>	<i>Interest rank</i>	<i>Pressure rank</i>
Religious	1	6
Welfare and Health	2	3
Professional	3	5
Patriotic	4	2
Civic Service	5	7
Industrial	6	1
Political	7	4
Miscellaneous*	8	8

* Miscellaneous groups include athletic associations, fraternal organizations, clubs, theaters, library guilds, real estate groups, and foreign parent groups.

From the standpoint of interest, groups of religious emphasis ranked first, followed by welfare and health groups and professional groups. From the standpoint of pressure, industrial groups rank first, followed by patriotic groups, and welfare and health groups. In other words, religious

¹⁰ This study was conducted at the University of Pittsburgh under the direction of the author.

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groups will be seen to indicate an *interest* rather than exert a *pressure* in their activities, whereas industrial groups, such as public utilities and other corporations, exert a *pressure* rather than indicate an *interest*.

NATURE OF OBJECTIVE RELATIONSHIPS

The nature of the objective relationships which these groups exercise toward the public school is of much importance to those engaged in education. These are indicated below alphabetically with the rank order of service to the school indicated.

This table includes only those groups *most active* in the objective relationship as reported. The rank-order column takes into consideration all totals for each of the respective groups of interests and pressures, both helpful and harmful, and indicates the rank order for the objective relationships mentioned.

<i>Nature of objective relationship</i>	<i>Most active groups</i>	<i>Rank order of interest or pressure, or both, as exerted by all groups</i>
1. Active cooperation, coordinate with school, support libraries	Civic service, Miscellaneous groups	2
2. Boost athletics, finance trophies, want winning teams	Civic service, Miscellaneous groups	16
3. Charitable, health, or welfare service	Welfare and health, Civic service	1
4. Contests, awards, and prizes	Patriotic groups	4
5. Critical attitude, selfish interest manifested, harmful pressures	Political groups, Miscellaneous groups	17
6. Decrease taxes, reduce faculty, curtail school services	Industrial groups Civic service	15
7. Encourage scholastic standing	Civic service, Patriotic groups	18
8. Furnish speakers	Professional groups, Religious groups	8
9. Gifts to school	Welfare and health	14
10. Guidance, vocational, educational	Industrial groups, Welfare and health	10
11. Influence school problems, hiring teachers, course of study	Civic service	9
12. Leisure time activities encouraged	Welfare and health	13

<i>Nature of objective relationship</i>	<i>Most active groups</i>	<i>Rank order of interest or pressure, or both, as exerted by all groups</i>
13. Promote good citizenship, moral, religious, patriotic	Professional groups, Religious groups, Welfare and health, Patriotic groups	6
14. Promote social organizations: Hi-Y, Jr. Red Cross, Girl Reserves	Religious groups, Welfare and health, Miscellaneous groups	7
15. Publicity for school—good and bad	Political groups	19
16. Raise political problems—influence board	Civic service, Political groups	11
17. Special campaigns—thrift, safety, etc.	Civic service, Welfare and health	3
18. Use of buildings, grounds	Welfare and health, Patriotic groups	12
19. Visual aids, availability to schools	Industrial groups, Welfare and health	5

RANK ORDER OF BENEFIT

In order to arrive at some conclusion as to the order of benefit to the public schools of each of the groups included in the study, the five-point replies as to *benefit* or *harm* to the school were properly weighted. Interpreting the smallest average as of the greatest benefit, the reporters rank the eight groups *in order of benefit* as follows:

<i>Nature of group emphasis</i>	<i>Rank order of benefit</i>
Civic service groups	1
Welfare and health groups	2
Religious groups	3
Patriotic groups	4
Professional groups	5
Miscellaneous groups	6
Industrial groups	7
Political groups	8

As indicated above, this study represents the findings and attitudes of schoolmen and board members, who are close to the problem of dealing with community interests and pressure groups. Perhaps other communities would show slightly different results. Helpfulness or harm to educa-

tion is again a matter of attitude and activity. Conditions in each community may determine the nature of these benefits or detriments. It is interesting to note that in general *the helpfulness of these community groups far outweighs their harmful nature*. The necessity for a sufficient knowledge of the activities of these groups and the nature of the relationship which each exerts is obvious. A complete file of information should be maintained concerning all group activities in each community, including their objectives and leadership.

COMMUNITY ACCESS TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOL

It must be constantly kept in mind that the public school is a state-mandated institution, that the nature of its control is specified by legislative action, and that its basic educational program is prescribed by legislative mandate. It is the function of educational leadership to administer that program in the light of the needs, abilities, and interests of boys and girls and in the light of community backgrounds and needs.

Some of the most difficult problems confronting teachers and administrators are those so-called "interruptions" of this educational program. Some of them are specified by the school laws; others are inspired by interested groups in the community. The first of these is illustrated by the commemoration of special days and special weeks. The National Education Association¹¹ has identified 32 such weeks, in addition to numerous holidays and other special days. One harrassed teacher facetiously suggested that we should also observe "Teach School Week." The second includes prize contests, a favorite device for securing access to the schools. Such contests require a minimum of effort on the part of the sponsors, who shift most of the responsibility for their administration onto the school. These include essays, oratory, poster, spelling, typing, health, agricultural, and many other contests. Usually they are of little value and often engender unhealthy rivalry and favoritism.

As a third problem, collecting money for some local or national effort through the public schools has grown far too rapidly and become annoying and time consuming. Examples of these include community-chest, Red Cross, and charitable and patriotic appeals. They often make unreasonable demands on the children because of the pressure exerted through them. When combined with the school's own demands on pupils for funds for school activities, the occasions for collecting money through the pupils are multiplied.

Free materials, mostly of an advertising nature, become a fourth means

¹¹ "The Expanding Role of Education," *Twenty-sixth Yearbook*, American Association of School Administrators, N. E. A. (1948), p. 297.

of community entrance into the schools. This will be discussed in detail in another section. Speakers representing colleges, utilities, and political, welfare, religious, and civic groups, as well as those representing lyceums or their own talent gain entrance to the schools through the assembly or through selected classes. These individuals and the causes they represent should be carefully screened by school authorities. It may require much courage to withstand pressures of this nature in protecting the well-being of young children and youth, especially if the representative is prominent in any way or known personally. At the same time the alert schoolman will recognize the opportunity to broaden the education of youth by careful selection. Whatever selection is made must be in accord with sound educational objectives and an adopted school policy.

EDUCATION AND ORGANIZED INTERESTS

NATURE OF ORGANIZED INTERESTS

Economic and social forces have always been dominant in shaping the nature of community living. Some of these forces, termed "interests," the educator must understand thoroughly. Many of these are organized on a national level, are well financed, and have become strongly entrenched. They have been termed "organized interests" and classified, in accordance with Raup,¹² as those which are self-centered, such as strictly profit-making groups, and those which are primarily service agencies, as religious and semireligious groups. There should be a community awareness of the power and influence they wield in shaping the thinking of the rising generation. Many of them have influenced the schools through control of the school board or school personnel or by influencing school support. When the educator has dared to oppose them he has often felt their power.

Quite often they work in a secretive and insidious manner. Often backed by unlimited funds and manned by intelligent leaders, they have exerted influences upon the work of the public school out of all proportion to their educational usefulness. Many of these interests represent controversial social and economic issues, in dealing with which the hands of the educator have been tied because of supervisory direction, or timidity, or both. Because too often they have capitalized on patriotism, economic unrest, economic power, or religious beliefs, and have employed the most advantageous means for expressing these powers and emotions, such as the radio, newspaper, and moving picture, the educator must

¹² Bruce Raup, *Education and Organized Interests in America* (G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1936), p. 1.

understand them fully and accept, oppose, counteract, or interpret their influences for the common good of childhood. The board of education should face the problems squarely and develop a policy which will enable the superintendents, principals, and teachers to give the educational program first attention.

ORGANIZED RELIGIOUS GROUPS

Organized religious groups have attempted to influence public schools in five areas: (1) religious rites and celebrations in the schools in spite of the fact that schools have traditionally been nonsectarian; (2) religious bias in the selection of school personnel; (3) religious instruction both in and out of school; (4) public support of parochial schools as well as interference in attempts of states to control the program of the private schools; and (5) influence of religious bodies on the public school curriculum. One of the most difficult school-community problems, as yet largely unsolved, is the nature and scope of religious instruction under public-school auspices.

VARIED ATTACKS

In certain quarters one hears doubts expressed as to the advisability of continuing *free* public school education especially on the upper secondary levels. These groups say that mass secondary education is wasteful and that many are unable to profit adequately by the enormous expenditure of public funds. Many believe that our educational program does not fit for life; that the colleges dominate the curriculum; that the farm boy is weaned away from the farm; that "fads and frills" should be discarded in favor of a "common school" education. Some of these outcries have been expressed through organized channels, others as smoke screens for baser motives, still others as real convictions of well meaning citizens.

STUDIES OF THE COMMISSION ON SOCIAL STUDIES

As part of the Report of the Commission on Social Studies, the American Historical Association endeavored to ascertain the nature of the interest of many citizens' groups in civic instruction in the schools.¹³ This study investigated more than 200 organizations, including patriotic, military, peace, religious, business, political, and fraternal groups, which seemed to have been in any way instrumental in shaping the channels of American thought. The study analyzed in a thoroughgoing manner their

¹³ Bessie L. Pierce, *Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth*, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, Part III (Charles Scribner's Sons, 1933).

educational and civic policies and programs affecting public education. In addition to a general interest in education, those groups have been concerned with compulsory school attendance, illiteracy, greater pupil participation in school government, school equipment, school support, civic doctrines leading to various forms of indoctrination, homage to the American flag, morals, peace and brotherhood, control of utilities, influencing of legislation for various purposes, loyalty oaths, and prohibitions. The controlling factor in every case seems to be the inspiration of love of country through some definite preconceived procedure.¹⁴

SENSITIVITY TO EXTERNAL INFLUENCES

It should be clear to the reader that the roots of the present educational pattern lie deep in the past. Education has always been a community force through the years, and many of the traditional characteristics of our school system remain. Since change is characteristic of a democratic society, education as an institution must constantly meet the challenges of an interested and well-meaning, if not always sound, community expression toward education.

And so the modern educational pattern becomes definitely the result of many interests, social pressures, and influencing situations in which many individuals, organizations, and institutions of community and national scope have participated. Many of these situations have resulted in legislative action which determined not only the form of organization but the curriculum of the school itself. The educational leader is not fulfilling his obligations if he merely awaits and meets social change as it is presented to him. He must also be active in studying his community and in trying to develop an educational program fully adapted to the nature, interest, and needs of boys and girls and to the problems they will meet as they approach the realities of life. Indeed, his duty does not stop there, since the school of the future will provide for the educational and cultural needs of all citizens of a community.

The solution of these school-community problems, then, seems to lie in the energy, courage, and good judgment of sound, well-informed, and well-educated educational leadership. At the same time, education is a science; much has been accomplished for education as the result of scientific procedures and experimentation. Subjective judgment is not always a safe criterion by which to make decisions of consequence. Untested ideas

¹⁴ The student of the problem of freedom of teaching will find an excellent discussion of interest and pressure groups in relation to public education in Howard K. Beale, *Are American Teachers Free?* Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, Part XII (Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936), especially Chaps. XVIII, XIX, XX.

must be brought under the bright light of careful scrutiny and tested experience. Such leadership becomes sensitive to social pressures; it examines them carefully and makes decisions with the primary thought that the decision will affect the one fifth of the nation's population who are preparing to live in a democracy. The educational leader's personality will need to be such as to enable him to know people and get along with them. He will need courage, insight, and tact. The task is one of securing a harmonious agreement between the legislative mandate and the expression of popular interest and social pressure in whatever manner it may appear, all directed toward a sound educational program. The task is not easy.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

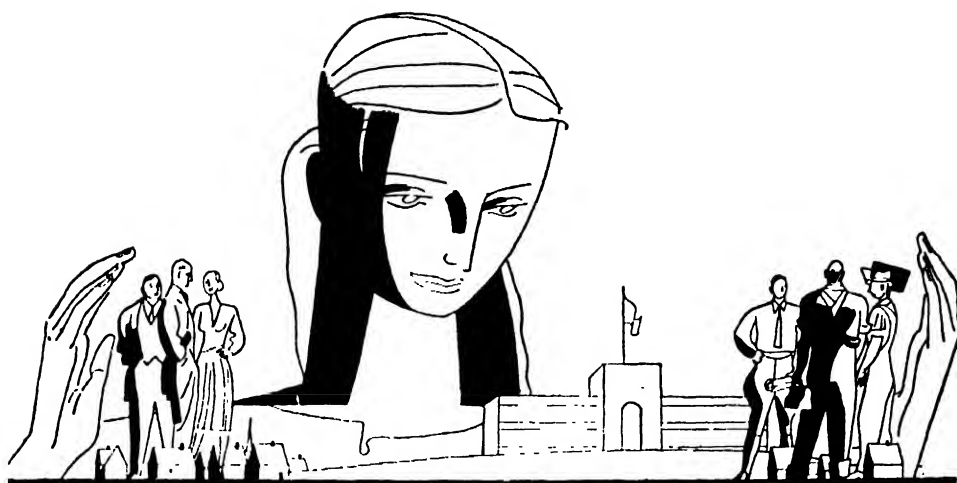
1. What points of community interest in education are directly traceable to the fact that the impetus for the establishment of public schools came from within the community?
2. Trace the steps in the development of supervision from a strictly lay to a strictly professional function.
3. Compare the teacher in the early schools with the modern teacher in regard to his influence in the community.
4. What points in common do you observe with "boarding around" and (a) electing the home town girl, (b) the married woman teacher, (c) requiring teachers to live within the district?
5. What evidence points toward greater pressure upon public education in 1938 as compared with that of one hundred years ago?
6. Is the present tendency toward increased use of school facilities by lay groups a wholesome development? What rules and regulations should apply?
7. To what extent are underlying motives of modern interest and pressure groups praiseworthy? Blameworthy?
8. Compare the attitudes of Judd and Raup as expressed in the chapter.
9. Comment on Judd's statement: "The curriculum, like the school itself, is an aspect of the general social order."
10. To what extent is educational leadership in your community sensitive to "interest groups"? "Pressure groups"? How is this sensitivity expressed?
11. What is the best remedy for harmful pressures?
12. To what extent does the adage "He who pays the piper calls the tune" apply in regard to public-school support by organized interests?
13. Wherein is public education strengthened or harmed as a result of pressure activities?
14. What should be the nature of a well-prepared educational leader properly fitted to harmonize social pressures into a sound educational program?

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PART TWO

**FUNDAMENTALS OF
SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS**



CHAPTER 4

Understanding the Community and Its Schools

THE BROWN'S HOME, with its yard and shrubbery, was much like many other homes in that community. Mary was a good housekeeper. John enjoyed spending much of his spare time working around the house and the garden. John Junior looked after the lawn, and Susan and Rose Marie had their own tasks to perform. Everyone seemed happy in performing them. What pleased Mary most of all was the willingness of her children to invite their friends in after school to visit and play games. She was never quite sure whether the sounds in the house were loudest from Susan's piano or John's shop in the basement. She was pleased to know where her children were

Mary began to wonder about other children's home life in that community. She knew from talking to parents that there were problems in many of those homes. The morning newspaper carried a story about juvenile delinquency and the need for some recreation center to keep older boys and girls off the street corners. It troubled her greatly. What responsibility did John and she have with regard to these conditions and

what could they do about them? Should the parent-teacher association become interested in making the community better or were they concerned only with the schools? Why didn't the churches do more about these problems? Perhaps the school gymnasium could be opened up on certain evenings for play and recreation. Susan was old enough now to take care of herself, but Mary wasn't so sure about John Junior. Was there any way she and John could help improve community living without John's always bringing up the subject of more taxes? She decided to talk it over with the whole family that evening at the supper table.



Considerable emphasis has been given thus far to education as one of the institutions developed by society for its own preservation. The character of education is determined largely by the society it serves. Its influence upon society is reciprocal. To relive and reproduce the social heritage, to continue the current pattern, and to remake it in the interests of more desirable living are aspects of its regenerative function. Most parents would agree that they would wish for their children better returns from life than those which they themselves enjoyed.

The relationship which the public school bears to the home and the community it serves is rather specific. The home is the basic institution of modern society. It is an integral part of every community. In like manner, the community is the sum total of its homes and institutions. Although communities differ in many ways, there are certain integrating forces in each one. The public school is one of these. The community builds and uses its schools so that the wider purposes for which education exists may be more fully realized. The school environment and school program should be such that happy citizens emerge better fitted for that way of life we call American. Increasing complexities of modern social living make demands upon the public-school facilities for wider educational use for all citizens. These concepts will be developed in this chapter.

THE PLACE OF THE HOME IN SOCIAL LIVING

THE HOME

Nothing human is older than the family. Wherever human beings have existed there has appeared the home. Without it mankind would have disappeared from the earth. Its presence became a biological necessity. The young could not have survived without the protecting care of the parents. Sustenance and physical protection have always been provided

by parental care. The complexities of modern social living and its economic responsibilities have increased the obligations of the home with respect to the social and economic helplessness of childhood and youth. Parental care may extend, indeed, even to early adulthood when professional training postpones economic independence.

The home has become, however, more than a social necessity. It is the basis of community life itself. In it the personality of the child is developed. Here he learns the conforming aspects of the social pattern, the language, the mores, ideals, and social adaptations. The customs, religion, and laws of the group become a part of his training. Moreover, the home is looked upon as the chief source of moral training. The home gives the child an individuality, a feeling of belonging, an ancestry, and a birth-right.

HOME LIFE AND THE COMMUNITY

Within the same community will be found many dissimilarities in home life. Home life has varied with ethnic groups, countries, and periods of time. Many of these variations, with their corresponding influences, persist and probably will persist. Certain aspects of home life are rapidly changing; others typical of certain social groups, have persisted through generations. For example, a dominant religious influence may influence a family's style of dress, means of transportation, attitude toward education, and social relationships. The peculiar habits and mores of migrating nationalities persist through many generations, largely through a culture whose controlling influence is in the home. Perhaps the moral tone of any community is characterized by the quality and influence of its home living.

The modern home is an integral part of every community. It must remain a biological and a social necessity, as well as a cultural and moral influence. It is and still will continue to be the place of sleep, sustenance, health restoration, the mores, family traditions, morale, and entertainment, and the scene of many occasions for reliving, adaptation, and regeneration. Homemaking is and will remain an art. Homes are and will remain the locus of mother love and parental care, rest and relaxation, and, above all, the nucleus of happy community life. The community and the school will continue to reflect the happy home life. The proper education of the child must be predicated upon a happy, secure, efficient home life. This is fundamental to the American way.

PROBLEMS OF THE HOME ENVIRONMENT

What has been indicated in the preceding paragraphs applies to home life generally; yet one may readily observe the unequal and varying nature

of home life as it affects childhood in different communities and within the same community. Families vary in size. Their economic conditions vary from great wealth to destitution. Cultural conditions range from a high level to low levels indeed. Conditions making for good sanitation and healthful living are unequal. Generally, the lower the social-economic family status, the poorer the parents' health and the poorer the health of the children. One half of upper-class mothers consult pediatricians, as compared to one tenth in the lower level. Dietary deficiencies affect all classes of children. Great variations occur with respect to sleep, play, parental love, medical care, cultural opportunities, nutrition, parental control, and community environment.

Many environmental problems are the direct outcome of discord and broken homes. *Accord* homes are generally integrated and cooperative; *discord* homes the opposite. Parents who are irritable, quick-tempered, critical, suspicious of each other, and self-centered inevitably have a similar effect on the children. Family morale is thereby lowered, mutual services are withheld, and children become frustrated. Where a parent is removed by death, divorce, desertion, or other causes, the child lives in an abnormal home situation. Far too many American children are wards of the courts, living in institutions or broken homes, or without the understanding and loving direction of competent parents.

Every abnormal situation is apt to affect the child's personality in some manner. It is desirable to develop in every community homes in which a complete harmony of minds occurs—homes that are more than a place for food, shelter, clothing, and sleep. Homes must also provide for psychological necessities—protection, security, guidance, encouragement, and love. Homes in which desirable group living is practiced provide an environment adapted to a happy home living.

THE HOME AND SOCIAL CLASS

In an earlier chapter it has been pointed out that our democratic way of social living has not been able to overcome that form of social behavior which traditionally has separated people into social levels. It has not been able to eradicate such terms as upper-class, middle-class, and lower-class, with all of the peculiar characteristics which may be ascribed in any community to each of them. The fact remains that our social structure is essentially a class society. As such it bears a definite relationship to home life. Homes generally bear those earmarks of culture, organization, vocation, mores, location, economic levels, standards of living, attitudes, and educational levels which indicate unmistakably the social group level which they represent.

Fortunately, one of the distinguishing characteristics of our democratic way of living is its social mobility. Families and individuals within them may rise in the scale of social living. Education is one of the means of producing social mobility, and its influence as such should be constantly emphasized. Society not only owes each family both an opportunity to rise but is obligated to remove those barriers which prevent it and to eradicate those forces which bring about social regression. In the last analysis, much depends on the individual himself. Some children as they mature rebel against their home environment; others simply change in spite of it; still others—lacking the initiative or caught in a web of circumstances—remain as they are. Whatever the nature of the home environment, the essentials of the good life ought to be available to all youth.

SCHOOL PROGRESS IN RELATION TO HOME LIFE

Social reproduction begins within the family circle. Social progress for each child depends largely on the kind of environment his family represents. As the child enters the school, his adjustment depends upon his ability to accommodate himself to a new environment. Naturally, he must have much assistance in making these initial and subsequent adjustments. Three types of homes have been identified in this respect:¹ (1) "cooperative to school" homes, (2) "antagonistic to school" homes, and (3) "average" homes. In the first, every cooperation is given the school in regard to understanding it and its purposes, in assisting the child in his educational progress, and in supplementing the school program wherever possible. The second type of home tends to discount and stultify the school's influence. It will tolerate poor attendance and even encourage the child in active hostility toward classroom requirements and teacher authority. It passes on its own defects to the child as he develops. Between these two types is the typical home, perhaps more indifferent than interested, more so when it is not well informed concerning education or is preoccupied with other things, or when the school is apathetic in discovering the community's home life. If the school discovers the homes of the children, makes allies of the parents, learns about family situations, and improves the environment wherever possible, the child's educational progress is doubly assured. By these means the school can do much to improve the home situation. Home visitation, adequate information concerning the school, and a program of parent education can form the basis for cooperation.

¹Lloyd Allen Cook, *Community Backgrounds of Education* (McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1938), pp. 134-136.

THE COMMUNITY

COMMUNITY LIVING

Since man is by nature a social being, he has learned through the years that the development of his personality as well as his social group development can best be achieved through community living. The history of man is one of living together in some form—in a family, tribe, clan, village, town, or city. Protection in some form looms large as a factor in his social attraction and cleavage. Ties of family, mores, religion, and occupation serve to retain these associations, bringing about distinguishing characteristics which remain and which profoundly influence home living. These must be understood and reckoned with by the educator.

THE NATURE OF THE COMMUNITY

Communities are formed when the varying interests of families and individuals merge for purposes of protection, preservation of culture, sharing of basic service institutions, and participation in religious, educational, business, political, social, and other common activities. Throughout the community there exists a certain characterizing homogeneity and what might be designated as community spirit.

In every community life there is a historic past. Common experiences must have some beginnings. To understand the community, knowledge of these experiences and interests are essential. Family relationships, their rejoicings and sorrows, feuds, church affiliations, and sentimental attachments are aspects of community experiences. These may touch the public schools at many points. Moreover, these are patterns of shops and stores, leisure activities, relief and welfare agencies, political affiliations, social and fraternal alignments, and vivid personalities which always enter into the picture of community life.

Community life is best observed through its form of expression. It may express itself religiously—that is, through church relationships. Family clans may dominate or war on each other, the causes lying deep in the past. Political adherence to one party or creed may be the controlling mode of community expression. Again, there is likelihood of dominating individuals, controlling organizations, or business or industrial operations through whom the expression is made.

Communities differ in many ways. They may be urban, suburban, or rural. They may consist of large cities, rather closely knit together or spread out over a wide area. They may consist of rural areas or small

towns. They may be well or loosely organized. There may be communities within communities, with ethnic unity or ethnic and social heterogeneity. Communities are organized around many motifs—a religion, an ethnic grouping, an industrial establishment, a residential area, or an Utopian experiment. Communities are settled or mobile, close to other communities or remote in geographical setting, rich or poor, of varying races, languages, cultures, traditions, and mores. Interests are usually common to some degree. There is a certain degree of totality—that is, social groups functioning more or less harmoniously in some *total experiences* of community life.

STRUCTURAL AND FUNCTIONAL ASPECTS

An understanding of community living may be approached through an appreciation of (a) its structure and (b) its functions. Structurally, the community may be described in terms of its geographical location, its legal boundaries, its form of government, its occupations, its service institutions, its historical past, its face-to-face contacts, and its centers of interest. Each community recognizes certain types of interdependence, certain primary and supporting institutions, such as churches and schools, and a certain political authority. All of these attributes indicate a certain degree of homogeneity. Even within large cities certain community characteristics appear with respect to certain areas, which might be designated as communities within communities.

Since living together is the most distinguishing characteristic of the people of a community, our descriptive analysis does not convey the interactions and associations of individuals and groups. Human associations take many forms, such as families and clans, clusters of families in neighborhoods, and established institutions such as churches, trade unions, political groups, and neighborhood gangs. The status and behavior of the individual is best interpreted through his associations. Likewise, the levels of community living may best be determined through the nature, quality, and influence of its functional living. Common examples are suburban communities, where residential factors are predominant, company towns surrounding a single industry, and communities formed around some unifying principle such as a religion, occupation, or cult.

SCHOOL DISTRICTS AS COMMUNITIES

From the standpoint of the public school any concise definition of a community seems hazardous. It would seem almost impossible to find characteristics common to all of the more than 95,000 school districts in the United States. In most of these there is a political entity corre-

sponding to the municipal unity. There is one or more centers of interests, such as a school building or a community center. The school-consolidation movement, now reaching considerable proportions in many states, is rearranging territorial as well as community boundaries. And metropolitan areas are many communities in each of which the elementary school may become the center of educational interest. For all practical purposes, however, the school district and the community have certain identical characteristics, size and geographical isolation being limiting factors.

As has been pointed out, the establishment of public schools was originally a community enterprise. It took many forms: as an outgrowth of the religious sentiment of the community, Protestant groups generally being the staunchest supporters of the public schools; out of public sentiment developed in a town meeting, as in New England or under local community leadership; in fulfillment of the law setting apart land upon which to establish a public school, as in the Middle West; in response to a state mandate, as in Pennsylvania; or under some other local stimulus. Educational patterns established by these traditions have, in a sense, remained, and present community attitudes are colored by them in no small degree. An understanding of these traditions and the resulting attitudes is important in the study of school and community relationships.²

All of these aspects of community life have educational implications. Within the mandated state, minimum educational program variations will occur in accordance with the mores and attitudes of the people of each community. In one district, the citizens will want facilities of the best for their children and show a willingness to pay for them; for another, the education of the fathers is good enough. In one community, the relations between community and school are of the most cordial, cooperative type; in another, friction and opposition have been the tradition.

COMMUNITY ATTITUDES

Community attitudes towards the place and function of the public school in the educational process range widely. Several groups of individuals may be classified with educational attitudes as follows: (1) community groups who deny the right of the public school to educate any children in the public school, believing that such education should be wholly a parochial or parental concern; (2) those who believe that the public school should be confined to the offerings of an elementary program, based upon a short term and minimum support; (3) those who

² The student will find it interesting to trace in any good history of education the development of the public-school movement.

believe in a traditionally academic pattern of elementary and secondary education, largely dominated by college entrance requirements, and only mildly, if at all, vocational in nature; (4) those who believe in a forward-looking program of academically and vocationally useful secondary education, based upon a strong elementary program, well organized, varied, and well supported; and (5) those who believe in a progressively child-centered and community-centered school and program, in which the whole educational process is built around this one centrally dominant thought.

If these five attitudes are viewed progressively, it will be observed that the place and function of the home and the community become *increasingly necessary* to the success of the educational program. Moreover, there is a gradually increased sensitivity to the *total educational pattern* of the child and to the various counteracting stimuli which influence it. This naturally brings with it the acceptance of increased cooperative responsibilities in fulfilling the educational objectives. Furthermore, there is a demand for increasing competence on the part of all those associated in the educational process.

IMPROVING COMMUNITY ATTITUDES TOWARD PUBLIC EDUCATION

It must be obvious that there is a wide range of adaptability of schools to the communities they serve. In many communities social and economic conditions which might be improved through education have not generally made great progress, owing largely to a general lag in applying what we already know about education itself. Many people, steeped in tradition and influenced by this or that condition or personality, not only prefer the *status quo* but violently resent educational change. The problem is how to create more favorable attitudes toward education generally, how to reduce the distance between desirable things in education and their application, and how to adapt the right kind of education to the boys and girls according to the conditions within each type of community. Certain groupings of community factors essential to adaptability have been indicated.³ These are, first, the degree of community good will toward education as indicated by willingness to lend financial support and accept the school's leadership in the educational program. Such good will is directly related to (a) the educational level of the community, (b) the occupational level of the community, and (c) social factors working to broaden the public mind with reference to education. Second, there must be community understanding of what schools can do, what educa-

³ Truman Mitchell Pierce, *Controllable Community Characteristics Related to the Quality of Education* (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947), Chaps. II, III.

tion can accomplish as a means of achieving desirable social purposes. Improvement of economic and social conditions within a community generally react toward improving educational interest in and support of public education. Improvement of the schools improves the community; each, in turn, is reflected continuously in the other's improvement. Competent leadership is always present.

The fortunes of communities rise and fall independently of national or regional trend. A highly attractive community may suddenly undergo social and economic changes affecting the next generation. Such factors as immigration, industrial depression or prosperity, change in leadership, a disastrous catastrophe such as a fire, earthquake, or flood, crop failures, and many other incidents peculiar to the situation are potential forces which must be constantly reckoned with. These naturally have their effect on education.

THE COMMUNITY BUILDS THE SCHOOLS

AUTHORITY OF THE SCHOOL DISTRICT

School districts, as civil divisions of the state, are quasi-corporations. As such they are vested with several important functions. They execute state legislative mandates and state policies. As corporations they possess certain limited powers inherent in this corporate power.

Title to school property is vested in a school district, represented by the board of education, whose members are, in most instances, elected by the people of that district. Since the typical school district of the nation is comparatively small, title to this school property lies close to the people. School boards have the right to acquire school property in the name of the school district by purchase or by eminent domain. Under certain statutory limitations, they have the authority to erect buildings, equip them, and tax the people or bond the district for their erection and maintenance. In most cases bond issues must be voted upon by the people of the district.

In view of the fact that the citizens of a school district through their representatives build the schools of their own community in accordance with their own methods, subject of course to statutory or other requirements and limitations, these school properties lie close to them. The funds for these buildings and their maintenance, except where the state and federal governments have made provision under certain conditions, are provided by them. School equity would seem to be of direct interest to the people of the community.

NATURE OF THE SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT—THE SCHOOL SITE

Materially, the school environment consists of the school site, the buildings, and the equipment and facilities within the buildings. When these are harmoniously selected, coordinated and administered, the educational process is stimulated in many ways. The proper selection of the school site should conform to certain desirable standards. The community often enters into this selection at many points. Possibly several alternate sites are available. Conflicting interests may arise in making a selection. Parents may seek to exert influence for one or another site because of greater proximity or for other personal reasons. Real estate owners may be financially interested. Individual school board members, eager to please their constituents, or looking forward to re-election, vote accordingly. Not infrequently one section of the community becomes arrayed against another, schisms occur, and families become divided. Litigation sometimes results, delaying the school enterprise and robbing children of needed educational facilities. These are, no doubt, extreme situations, but they illustrate what can happen in regard to school site selection.

A dramatic instance of community dissension occurred when it was proposed to house in one school in one community all elementary children of two communities and all high school pupils in a building in the second community, at a considerable saving to both communities. Strife rose to riot heights. Argument and vituperation flourished between the towns, largely because of school loyalties and traditions and bitter rivalries centering about sports and personalities. Incidents such as this have delayed the extension of enriched educational opportunities to all children.⁴ Happy is that community where these things have not occurred, where the people are united in insisting upon the selection of the most appropriate school environment and the best obtainable school program for their children.

Although few of the problems growing out of the selection of the school site arise frequently, care should be taken to avoid them. Under state regulation and wise guidance, the responsibility for the selection of a proper school site rests with the board of education. That community is wise if its citizens put away selfish interests and, after board decision, join in any project having the well-being of all childhood under consideration.

The Building. Upon selection of the school site, the building or buildings erected thereon should be carefully considered. A skilled archi-

⁴ *Life Magazine*, Vol. 29, No. 16 (Oct. 16, 1950), pp. 48-49. This issue, devoted exclusively to education, described many typical school situations in the United States.

tect should be employed who will work hand in hand with the school board and professional staff, planning an artistic and useful school plant in conformity with the school needs of the district, the topography of the land, and the funds available. Such a school plant should be a thing of beauty to the community, useful in its purpose to child and adult alike, economical in its upkeep, and lasting in its influence upon the educational and social life of its people. It should take on the characteristics of a community school. Fortunately, state and federal funds have been available in increasing amounts. State supervision of building plans are resulting in finer school facilities and more economical construction. Beauty and utility as outstanding aims of the schoolhouse construction should be applied to the interior as well as the exterior. All funds available should be spent where the educational program can be most adequately and economically developed and administered.

A well-kept building and its surroundings will become the natural responsibility and pride of all citizens. The tendency to mar and molest school property disappears when boys and girls are made to feel this responsibility. Moreover, civic pride in pleasant school surroundings is carried into the home and the community through pupils and visiting parents. Whole communities have received a great "uplift" through a beautifully arranged school environment.

Extremes in School Environment. Much of what the child is to become is reflected in the total environment in which he lives. The school is the *home* of the child for an increasing number of hours of the school day. Its beauty, adaptability, and pleasing surroundings become a potent influence in his life, and play an important part in the educational process. Many of the lasting attitudes of the child toward education are directly traceable to the nature of his school environment.

Great progress has been made in recent years in making the public school the most outstanding building of the community. The school site is selected with great care, the school building is carefully planned and equipped, the grounds are landscaped, and the whole environment is designed to attract and retain the interests of school children. Although many communities are thus recognizing the importance of the school environment in developing childhood, it is sad to relate that many thousands of school children are today going from unlovely homes to still more unlovely school buildings—little unpainted frame or brick structures edging on stony hillsides or projecting corners, with small playground space, interior smoky from a woodburning or soft coal stove, undecorated walls, old torn maps, scarred, antiquated, double-row desks—altogether an uninviting appearance in and out. And if the child is still more unfortunate in being forced to fidget daily in the atmosphere of

an unlovely and unsympathetic teacher, what a school environment! For many an unhealthy and unlovely school environment can be beautified by the sweet influence of a teacher's radiance and understanding of childhood.

Yet any degree of equal or even adequate educational opportunity is hardly possible when one considers the great extremes in school environmental conditions still existing among states and within many states themselves. For even in those states proud of their educational achievement are still to be found extremes in school environment. Although there exist great variations in ability to provide good school facilities for childhood, it would seem to be the first duty of a state and of the people of any community in that state to provide the kind of school environment which will contribute to that state's as well as each community's highest conception of life in a democracy and maintain the place of the school in achieving the better, more abundant life.

Landscaping as a Cooperative Enterprise. More attention is now being given to the exterior and grounds than has formerly been the custom. It costs very little to landscape school property, especially if some foresight is exercised at the time of building construction. The landscaping and beautifying of school property may well be undertaken by community groups such as parent-teacher associations, or by school clubs or other school or community organizations.

Arbor Day is an excellent time to engage upon these activities. Pupils will take pride in their own endeavors. Parents and the community will be proud to drive past the school with their friends and point out a tree that they planted, or a shrubby group that the committee of the parent-teacher association sponsored. It is such community spirit and cooperation that makes for good schools. Instead of school officials being resentful, as is sometimes the case, they should encourage that sort of "ownership" on the part of the community's citizens. That community is most fortunate in its schools where there is a delightful "feeling of belonging" on the part of parent, teacher, child, and citizen.

THE MODERN SCHOOL BUILDING AS A COMMUNITY SCHOOL

Community planning, which is growing rapidly in America, comprehends planning for the total community and its activities. Education being one of these, school building planning should include provision for the educational needs of adults as well as for those of school age. Adult activities provided for in the schools include⁵ (1) socio-economic interests, (2) home, home-life, and personal-living interests, (3) recreation and re-

⁵ N. L. Engelhardt and N. L. Engelhardt, Jr., *Planning the Community School* (American Book Co., 1940), pp. 4-5.

laxation, (4) vocational adjustment, readjustment, and advancement, and (5) instruction for those special groups of people who need the fundamental tools for participation in our society.

School-building planning should include provision for these activities, not only for the sake of the activities but even more so because of the interest engendered thereby in the whole educational program. Every point of human contact ought to develop a potential supporter of education in general and the community's schools in particular.

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN RELATION TO THE WIDER USE OF SCHOOL FACILITIES

The wider use of the school plant will necessitate adequate planning if its program and activities are to be administered in as desirable a way as possible. The community school auditorium should be located and arranged so that it can be administered as a unit separate from the school itself. There should be convenient entrances and adequate space for indoor games and sports and other types of physical and social recreation. Most people like to listen to as well as participate in musical activities. The arts and crafts are similarly popular. Laboratories and libraries, as well as space provisions for small group discussions, study groups, vocational activities, and playgrounds, require consideration in planning. Dramatic arts must not be neglected. It does not require much imagination to realize that the community school can be the most widely used public building within the community, active by day and evening in the interests of a broadened educational program for all.

Several factors have focused increased attention to this wider use of the school plant. Among these are increased leisure time of adults and children, unemployment, extension of educational facilities, retraining of adults, recent activities of the federal government in the educational field, public forums, opportunities for organized parent-teacher cooperation groups, and the desire of community organizations to use the school plant as a convenient meeting place to save expense.

THE COMMUNITY AND THE USE OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND THE PEOPLE

The public schools belong to the people of the community, who have built and paid for them and manage them through their elected representatives under state laws made through their own representatives. Public-school education permits no discrimination among races, colors,

creeds, or economic or social conditions of the homes from which their children come. There is no institution in any community so truly "of the people, by the people, and for the people" as its public schools.

It is logical, then, to assume that the educational and social uplift of any community should be broadly for all of its citizens. Wherever the means of education can be applied, there will the benefits of education accrue.

Used but a small portion of the time for public school purposes, the school buildings and grounds are now being more and more utilized for the organizations of the community—civic, social, educational, and recreational. It is the most suitable center because it is nonsectarian, non-partisan, non-exclusive in character, and widespread in its influence upon the life of the people through their children. Modern school-building construction takes into consideration these broader educational objectives.

LEGAL RESTRICTIONS ON THE USE OF SCHOOL PROPERTY

Legal restrictions govern the extended use of school buildings for other than public school purposes. Most of the states and the District of Columbia have laws providing for the community use of school buildings. Within these limitations, and in states having no such legislation, it is commonly agreed that discretionary powers reside in the local school authorities as the custodians of school property to grant the use of the public schools for other than public-school purposes.⁶

In theory it has been held that public-school property is merely held in trust for the state by the local authorities and that the legislature may authorize its use for any purposes not prohibited by the constitution. There are so many conflicting opinions and state statutes on the use of public-school property that conclusions are difficult to draw. State statutes as well as the courts are divided as to the use of school property for such purposes as staging a carnival or show, for religious exercises, for social, fraternal, and political meetings, for private or public dances, for public assemblies, for social gatherings, and for similar purposes. In general, the rule referred to above applies—namely, that in the absence of constitutional or statutory limitations or court decisions to the contrary, discretionary power resides in the local board of education. However, boards of education should not permit the use of school property for private gain, for any purpose which in any way will unfit it for the major purposes intended, or for purposes contrary to the spirit of public education.

⁶ Newton Edwards, *The Courts and the Public Schools* (University of Chicago Press, 1933), pp. 318, 326.

USES MADE OF SCHOOL PROPERTY

The following are illustrative of the type of organizations which have made use of school property:

Americanization leagues	Farmers' institutes
Athletic associations	Health associations
Boy Scouts	High school clubs
Camp Fire Girls	Lecture courses
Churches	War veterans
Civic organizations	Mothers' clubs
Community clubs	Parent-teachers' associations
Community councils	Political groups
Drum corps	Teachers' clubs
Farm bureau	Welfare associations

In addition to the types of activities represented by the above organizations, the following represent some of the various purposes for which public school property has been used:

Board of health centers	Private schools or lessons
Commercial purposes	Public art exhibitions
Community centers of all types	Public forums
Dormitories	Public lectures, motion pictures, plays
Employment centers	Public libraries and reading rooms
Evening high schools (standard school)	Recreational centers — dances, athletic games, gymnastics, swimming
Evening classes	Religious meetings
Meeting places for community organizations	Voting and polling places
Museums	
Musical concerts and activities	

In some of the larger cities, community centers have been established where the varied activities represented by many of the above are co-ordinated under one administrative organization, sponsored by the board of education and supported in part out of public funds.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE MOVEMENT

Undoubtedly, the public schools are taking on more and more the nature of community educational centers. Activities which express the desires of the people of a community for their educational, social, and cultural advancement must be recognized. The community educational program should eventually become a co-ordinated program in which the needs and interests of all its citizens, adults, as well as boys and girls, are recognized. It is obvious that school facilities now available in most school

communities are inadequate. Cooperative educational planning of its citizens to this end is essential.

Numerous illustrations are available in the educational literature of the extension of school facilities for the educational and cultural advantage of its citizens. A typical community school might be described as follows: Selected school activities such as school plays are held on Friday evenings and are open to the public. There is a community kitchen in which hot lunches are prepared for the boys and girls. The school gymnasium is open on certain evenings and on Saturdays for older boys and girls and adults under close supervision. Elections are held in an accessible basement room. Boys' and girls' organizations, such as Boy Scouts and Camp Fire Girls, meet monthly. The school and community libraries have a cooperative arrangement. A community lecture course and public forum are held monthly in the auditorium. The parent-teacher association meets monthly, as well as its committees and study groups. After the meetings, the members and friends gather in the cafeteria and gymnasium for refreshments and social activity. There are many other activities, but these are illustrative.

SUGGESTIONS FOR THE WIDER USE OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS

Desirable school-community relations should include a definite policy and program in regard to a wider use of the public schools for purposes other than the formal education of childhood. It is pertinent at this point to suggest some principles which should underlie the development of such a program.

Recognition that public education, to serve the community well, should extend its educational facilities and resources to all groups desiring these facilities and resources within legal limitations and rules and regulations of the board of education.

Careful community-school planning to include such activities as may provide a rich and wholesome program for all.

Adoption by the board of education of suitable rules and regulations and a workable policy which can be administered impartially and with reasonable ease. Such a policy should include at least in certain cases, reasonable fees for the use of the school's facilities, which should cover heat, light, power, janitor service and, if necessary, reasonable wear and tear on apparatus or equipment.

Survey of the activities and organizations of the community with purposes wholly or in part educational which may desire to use the public school's facilities.

Adoption of a program and schedule for all activities and organizations under adequate administrative direction.

Utilization of every means at the disposal of the school authorities to

appraise the worth of this program and to utilize these opportunities in developing more desirable home-school-community relations with more adequate public education as the desired goal.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Find as many definitions of the community as you can.
2. Find and classify types of communities which have varying characteristics. What seems to be the effect of each type on its public schools?
3. Contrast changing home life and the effect upon school life.
4. Contrast the extremes in the school environment in districts with which you are familiar. How do these vary in different districts? In the same district?
5. What is the responsibility of each of the following in improving the school environment: board of education, administrative staff, teachers, pupils, parent-teacher association, and other groups?
6. What are the arguments in favor of, and against, a restricted use of school property by the public? Make up a set of rules for such use.
7. Study your own community as to: (a) present uses of its school plant; (b) proposed uses in the wider interests of community educational development.
8. Draw up a set of regulations which might apply to a particular school community in regard to the community use of school facilities.

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NOTE: Issues of the *American School Board Journal* and the *Nation's Schools* are rich in suggestive material on school plant and school buildings.



CHAPTER 5

Building Sound Public Opinion

WHEN THE CHILDREN came home from school that afternoon, Mary Brown was thinking about her experiences at the Mothers' Club. Each of the children seemed anxious to tell her about the happenings of the day in school that had excited their interest. Susan told about the panel discussion they had had in assembly that morning on the proposal to build a community recreational center for the boys and girls. They had all thought it was a fine thing, but the principal had said that many people were not in favor of it because of its cost. Some said it wasn't necessary because the churches, the Y.M.C.A., and the Y.W.C.A. had sufficient facilities if they used them well. Others said they weren't sure that the boys and girls would appreciate it. As it was, many people were provoked at the way the boys and girls acted during the past Hallowe'en.

At the Mothers' Club meeting that afternoon, the women had been discussing the community school. Some were in favor and others opposed. Mary thought they opposed it because they didn't understand what it was

all about. Why didn't all of these women belong to the parent-teacher association?

At the supper table, John told about a speaker they had that noon at the Hungry Club meeting. John said he was nothing more than a propagandist for some new business concern which was planning to establish a new factory in town and wanted the club to endorse his proposition. John said the new firm was a competitor of his own firm in disguise. Why didn't the speaker tell the truth about it? It was easy to see he was trying to influence those men. He even invited them to buy stock in the enterprise. In spite of the speaker's emotional appeals, John was against the idea. He got up and told them so.

Susan and John Junior wanted to know why the Hungry Club didn't discuss something which concerned the boys and girls. John didn't know. Mary thought all the town's organizations ought to be discussing the new community school. She still wasn't quite sure whether the superintendent of schools favored the idea. She meant to ask him.



The community forces which have brought about the establishment and operation of the educational enterprise have been set forth in preceding chapters. The nature of those powerful forces which mold the educational pattern and indicate the direction which the public school enterprise is taking should be of deep concern to the educator. Absorbed in his immediate task, the educational leader may not be sufficiently sensitive to these forces and the manner of their operation, and they may come upon him unaware.

Considerable emphasis has been laid in preceding chapters on the significance of social groups, with their corresponding social levels and social attitudes. United by some interest, economic, political, or religious, such groups become centers of power often controlling the decisions of the entire community, or, if a minority group, seeking to prevent or modify decisions against their interests. It is true that these social groups depend largely upon the vigor of their leadership; yet there is usually inherent in a vigorous social group forces which lie deep in the mores. These forces touch education at many points.

To understand, then, the nature of these forces, to evaluate them, and to develop a constructive policy to deal with them is the task of educational leadership. Underlying the act itself is the principle of the act, and knowledge and appreciation of the latter is essential to an understanding of the former. It is the purpose of this chapter to consider the nature of public opinion and propaganda, especially as they are related to

the whole educational process, and to offer suggestions which may be helpful in meeting school-community relations problems growing out of them.

PUBLIC OPINION AS A SOCIAL FORCE

THE PUBLIC MIND

In order that there may be a better understanding of the nature of the expression of social group thinking, especially in relation to education, it is necessary to examine the means of expression of the public mind—that is, of those individuals or groups comprising every community. We have seen that the American social order consists of many social groups and individuals, each with varying interests, striving to express those interests and to influence a larger public. In reality, the public mind as such does not exist; rather, we are dealing with the minds of the many individuals that compose a group or collection of groups. Furthermore, a public is always circumscribed.¹ Its boundaries may include the local interests of a small town or local community; they may include a city and its environs; in some situations the public group may be state wide. Like the group, the issues involved may range from the purely local to the international.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

Just when the expression “public opinion” originated cannot be ascertained. Political philosophers have generally been keenly aware of the importance of the opinions of people. The phrase *vox populi* (the voice of the people) is of Roman origin. During the eighteenth century writers began to use the term more frequently, subjecting it to systematic analysis. The French Revolution, being a democratic movement, gave great impetus to the development of the concept. Hobbes considered the world to be governed by opinion, and Locke included opinion as one of his three categories of law. Hume declared, “It is on opinion only that government is founded.” The reader can turn to many writers for further statements of this concept of public opinion, especially as it relates to democracy, social control, social problems, propaganda, pressure-group activity, social conflicts, and public-opinion management and control.²

¹ The student should be familiar with the point of view expressed in John Dewey, *The Public and Its Problems* (Henry Holt & Co., 1927).

² See Harwood L. Childs, *An Introduction to Public Opinion* (John Wiley & Sons, 1940), pp. 25-48.

THE EXPRESSION OF PUBLIC OPINION

There is a sharp distinction between private opinion and public opinion. Albert Bushnell Hart once remarked that the most difficult and momentous question of government is how to transmit the force of *individual* opinion into *public* action.³ It is natural that "the full dignity" of an individual in a democracy requires that his presence shall be *felt* and his opinions *expressed* in any action for the common good. Public opinion may be the expression of the behavior or the attitude of an individual or a group.⁴ It must be expressed *in some form*; otherwise it remains a private opinion. Positive or negative action may be the resulting behavior, a kind of "yes" or "no" response.

Lippmann indicates that what each man does is based not on direct and certain knowledges, but on "pictures" made by himself or given to him by another.⁵ These control his actions and account for his attitudes and responses. It may be to the advantage of certain interests to modify or change these "pictures" which control action. Here propaganda appears as an effort to alter purposely the "pictures" to which men respond.

All of us are familiar with the different observations reported by as many different persons who have witnessed some incident. Each has observed the event; each has reported what he has seen; but none may agree as to findings in every particular, being influenced by some previously formed image or picture which now assumes definite shape in face of the event or of subsequent events.

This may be aptly illustrated in the response of parents to stories of children brought home from school. Parents' opinions are formed and attitudes assumed in response to "pictures" mentally formed out of previously formed concepts. These control parental or pupil action and register friendly or unfriendly responses to the public school.

The human mind is creative. As Lippmann points out, these "pictures fade or combine, are sharpened here, condensed there, as we make them more completely our own."⁶ Men visualize in different degrees and in various manners. Different motives rule men's actions: justice, war, sex, protection of the weak, pugnacity, love, hate, presence of a real or fancied evil. Each one of these, and many others, have been instrumental in influencing men's actions. Many different motives influence citizens as to the public school and its issues and problems. "Modern society," says

³ Albert Bushnell Hart in the Introductory note to A. Lawrence Lowell's *Public Opinion and Popular Government*. Longmans, Green and Co., 1926.

⁴ Peter H. Odegard, *The American Public Mind* (Columbia University Press, 1930).

⁵ Walter Lippmann, *Public Opinion* (Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1922), Chap. I.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 159.

Mr. G. K. Chesterton, "is intrinsically insecure, because it is based on the notion that all men will do the same thing for *different* reasons."⁷

THE RANGE OF PUBLIC OPINION

A man's economic level may limit or enlarge the range of his vision and hence determine his opinions. The attitudes and opinions of a mechanic in a garage may suddenly change if he suddenly becomes its owner. Similarly, men find themselves controlled by such strong influences and pressures as an employer, a wife, a political boss, a creed, or the editorial policy of a newspaper. The exercise of the control of public opinion takes into consideration those forces which may be brought to bear upon strategic personalities so as to use them for the purpose intended.

There are many limiting factors which often mislead men in their dealings with the world outside. These are the artificial censorships (as during war), the limitations of social contacts, the comparatively meager time available in each day for paying attention to public affairs, the distortion arising because events have to be compressed into very short messages, the difficulty of making a small vocabulary express a complicated world, and, finally, the fear of facing those facts which would seem to threaten the established routine of men's lives.

It is a significant observation that people are notoriously inconsistent.⁸ One day they like a person; the next day they are repelled by him. One day they are very much in love, and a week later they despise the person without whom, they have been saying, life would be unendurable. A man may really hold two beliefs at the same time, turning from one to the other without regard to consistency. Indeed, an individual may not recognize, much less appreciate the inconsistency of his own behavior. He may not pause to rationalize. The hero and the villain may appear in quick succession in the same individual, as in sports or politics or perhaps education. In the long run this may prove to be a great advantage, especially where it is utilized to desirable ends. New information and new situations may affect the rationalization of a previous opinion.

Within each individual are powerful urges and drives, none more powerful than the will to survive and to attain better living. Especially is this true in regard to one's children. To attain a better way of living one must understand his physical and social environment and the laws

⁷ G. K. Chesterton, "The Mad Hatter and the Sane Householder," *Vanity Fair*, Jan. 1921, p. 54.

⁸ Leonard W. Doob, *Public Opinion and Propaganda* (Henry Holt & Co., 1948), Chap. V. This is an excellent treatise on this subject.

which govern it. Understanding of the physical environment may be attained through one set of laws; understanding the social environment may require quite another. To this end man must understand social behavior, how men respond, and to what stimuli; what personality is and how men differ; what drives and habits are predominant; what attitudes one has toward other people and toward objects in his environment. Man may be limited by his intelligence, by his range of knowledge, or the skills he possesses. His social group may completely dominate his thinking and its expression. Such understandings are fundamental in education.

THE LAWS OF PUBLIC OPINION

Many attempts have been made to set forth the laws of public opinion. One of the earliest and perhaps the most influential is that of Lippmann.⁹ More recently Cantril¹⁰ has indicated certain laws of public opinion which appear to have considerable merit, especially as they may relate to education. These are as follows:

1. Opinion is highly sensitive to important events.
2. Events of unusual magnitude are likely to swing public opinion temporarily from one extreme to another. Opinion does not become stabilized until the duplications of events are seen with some perspective.
3. Opinion is generally determined more by events than by words.
4. Verbal statements and outline of courses of action have maximum importance when opinion is unstructured, when people are suggestible, and seek some interpretation from a reliable source.
5. By and large, public opinion does not anticipate emergencies—it only reacts to them.
6. Psychologically, opinion is basically determined by self-interest.
7. Opinion does not remain aroused for any long period of time unless people feel their self-interest is acutely involved or unless opinion, aroused by words, is sustained by events.
8. Once self-interest is involved, opinion is not easily changed.
9. When self-interest is involved, public opinion in a democracy is liable to be ahead of official policy.
10. When an opinion is held by a slight majority, or when opinion is not solidly structured, an accomplished fact tends to shift opinion in the direction of acceptance.
11. At critical times, people tend to become more sensitive to the adequacy of their leadership.
12. People are less reluctant to have critical decisions made by their leaders if they feel that somehow they, the people, are taking some part in the decision.

⁹ Walter Lippmann, *The Phantom Public* (Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1925), pp. 144-145.

¹⁰ Hadley Cantril, *Gauging Public Opinion* (Princeton University Press, 1944), pp. 226-

13. People have more opinions and are able to form opinions more easily with respect to goals than with respect to methods necessary to reach those goals.

14. Public opinion, like individual opinion, is colored by desire.

15. The important psychological dimensions of opinion are direction, intensity, breadth, and depth.

16. Although public opinion is by no means always consistent, many of the inconsistencies are more apparent than real.

17. By and large, if people in a democracy are provided educational opportunities and ready access to information, public opinion reveals a hard-headed common sense.¹¹

DEVICES USED IN SHAPING PUBLIC OPINION

From time immemorial various devices have been used to influence public opinion towards desired ends. History records devious ways used by demagogues and others to attain their own purposes. In an excellent chapter on "The Nature of Public Opinion," the Fifteenth Yearbook Committee¹² listed six devices used in shaping public opinion:

1. *Name calling*—device to make people accept a conclusion without full consideration of the facts in the case. To be termed "communist" is a current example.

2. *The band wagon*—utilization of emotional excitement, gregariousness, fashion devices, and "follow the crowd" motives to secure desired ends.

3. *Glittering generalities*—use of generalities involving high emotional content as truth, honor, justice, and patriotism, or their opposites, as injustice, un-Americanism, or undemocratic.

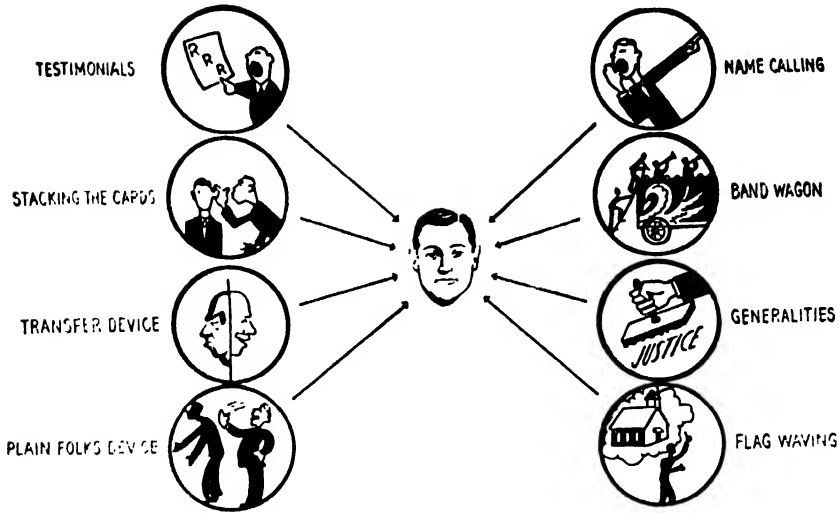
4. *Flag waving*—use of symbols to which we respond "by reason of years of tradition, training, and association. . . . The chief exponent of flag waving in the United States is William Randolph Hearst." Other symbols are the "cross of the church," and the "little red schoolhouse." The public school has had to contend with many problems raised by selfish interests through this type of mass control.

5. *Testimonials*—use of favorable or unfavorable statements in regard to education from responsible citizens to gain desired ends, quite often warped to suit a particular purpose than otherwise intended. Such testimonials have been used to attack the costs and curricula of the public schools.

6. *Stacking the cards*—misrepresentation varying from "unintentional distortion to deliberate falsehood." Whispering campaigns come under this category. It may include under-emphasis as well as over emphasis and is quite often difficult both to detect as well as to control.

¹¹ Professor Doob has not found it possible to accept Cantril's laws *in toto*. In his *Public Opinion and Propaganda* (Chap. V.) he gives a critical analysis of these "laws" and closes the chapter with his own set of principles, to which the reader is referred.

¹² "The Improvement of Education," *Fifteenth Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence (National Education Association, 1937) pp. 155 ff.



THE DEVICES FOR SHAPING PUBLIC OPINION

The Institute for Propaganda Analysis, Inc., an organization developed for the purpose of detecting and analyzing propaganda, confirmed all the above-mentioned devices excepting "flag waving" and added two others:¹³

1. *Transfer device*—carries over the authority, sanction and prestige of something we respect and revere to something which the propagandist would have accepted.

2. *Plain-folks device*—a device used by politicians, labor leaders, business men, and even ministers and educators by appearing to be people like ourselves—just plain folks. Plain-folks devices are utilized as picnics, old frame church, or down on the farm.

These devices have far-reaching significance in school-community relations. The educational leader has them at his disposal in developing his educational program. A knowledge of them may be highly important in understanding the activities of community groups, especially where pressures are exerted which he may feel to be inimical to the best interests of the school. For example, one of the best means of obtaining support for a new educational enterprise, such as a school building program, may be the endorsement (by testimonials) of outstanding citizens or of a parent-teacher association. Again, pleading the cause of education as a "glittering generality"—the cause of a community's childhood—with considerable emotional fervor may be highly effective in furthering a program or saving a situation.

¹³ *Propaganda Analysis* (Nov. 1937), I, No. II, pp. 2, 3.

HOW PUBLIC OPINION IS FORMED

The devices which have been indicated are those generally advanced as useful in shaping public opinion. Of course these imply usefulness in the hands of those whose intent it is to shape it to desired ends. It must not be forgotten that reliably formed public opinion is built upon many inherent patterns of action, being influenced by feelings, thoughts, and actions along traditional or inherited lines. In many instances, the mores of the group are a controlling factor. We are influenced by leadership, reason, controversy, religion, emotions, the pack, and our personal likes and dislikes. Neumeyer¹⁴ has explained the formation of public opinion:

The individual opinions are derived from various bits of information or factors at the disposal of the people, such as facts, news, hearsays and rumors, legends, myths, and what not. Certain elements in the environment and those derived from personal experiences are seized upon. The opinions, sentiments, and common sense of the masses, based upon customs, mores, traditions, laws, dogmas, historical policies of the group furnish the general background. The discontent finds general expression. Controversies and discussions follow. Leaders arise to define the issue or issues, propose solutions, and champion causes. Interest is aroused and people begin to talk. The issue is discussed in papers and established social institutions, private organizations, public agencies, and individuals contribute to the discussion and exert an organizing and unifying influence upon the unorganized mass of related yet somewhat diverse opinions and sentiments. Finally public opinion becomes crystallized and expresses itself through legislation or special leaders or agencies capable of giving expression.

MEASURING PUBLIC OPINION

FACTORS INVOLVED

Any attempt to measure public opinion should take into consideration several factors: (1) its analysis cannot be considered apart from an understanding of the economic and social relationships of those to be analyzed; (2) the issues which arise out of conflicts must be identified before these issues can be studied; (3) the status of public opinion at a given time and place represents the conditions prevailing at that time and is not necessarily predictive of a subsequent condition; (4) the nature of the information possessed by a given group depends upon the limiting conditions prevailing; and (5) there is some difference of opinion as to the effectiveness of public opinion as a social force.

¹⁴ Martin H. Neumeyer, "Public Opinion," *American School Board Journal*, 81, No. 1, (July 1930), p. 46.

PURPOSES

Procedure in measuring public opinion depends largely on the purposes intended. It may be the desire only to reveal information possessed by the respondents, for which a simple instrument requiring yes-no, true-false, or cross-out tests may be appropriate. These should be designed to fit both the facts to be gathered and the persons to be tested. It may be the purpose to appraise the schools or their programs in terms of value, in which case some device must be developed to register range, degree, or intensity of response. Such tests may involve multiple choice, rating scales, or ranking devices. A third purpose may be the measurement of attitudes or points of view. In this case, some device must be developed in which the respondent can answer without emotion. Usually checks are applied in order to assure some measure of consistency in attitudes expressed. Attitudes may also be measured from opinions expressed in newspaper articles, editorials, pamphlets, letters, or diaries, as well as through oral or written interviews. Quite often public opinion may be expressed in some official form as by resolutions, laws, or policies.

POLLS

Public-opinion polls have become quite common. Usually they are based on a small but adequate sample of the group to be tested. They are designed to reveal both information and misinformation, to give information, to reveal attitudes and opinions, and to strengthen the democratic process through the sharing of decisions. These purposes may be achieved through questionnaires and interviews. It is important that the sample be sufficiently representative with respect to age, sex, occupation, economic and social status, geographical areas, and other factors peculiar to the area to be studied.

NOTE: Further consideration is given to evaluative techniques in school-community relations in Chap. 23. There is a considerable body of literature dealing with the measurement of public opinion. The following may be found helpful: Frederick T. Rope, *Opinion Conflict and School Support*. William Albright, *Public Opinion*, Chaps. XI, XII; Hadley Cantril, *Gauging Public Opinion*; Lindsay Rogers, *The Pollsters*; Harold C. Hand, *What People Think About Their Schools*.

PROPAGANDA AND EDUCATION

DEMOCRACY AND PUBLIC OPINION

Democracy must depend for its ultimate success upon a sound and reliably informed public opinion. Education should be one of the means

by which this may be accomplished. Through proper educational procedures, the American citizen should be taught how to think in order that, through sound public opinion, the opportunities of democracy may be realized. Whatever may seek to preserve and extend democracy is in accord with it; whatever seeks to mislead, divert, bias, undermine, or destroy it is inimical to it.

It is at this point that propaganda emerges. If propaganda is defined as a system or means of impressing an opinion upon the public or upon a social group, the borderline between propaganda and the creation of sound public opinion is a flexible one. Thus propaganda takes on the nature of argument not to find the truth but to attain a certain end. It selects its arguments because they carry an element of will or of power. Its arguments tend to influence people in a certain direction.¹⁵

Writers in the field are in no sense agreed as to the nature of propaganda. It is important that the student of school-community relations, in arriving at his own interpretation, understands their differences. The following have been selected for inclusion here:

Propaganda is expression of opinion or action by individuals or groups deliberately designed to influence opinions or actions of other individuals or groups with reference to predetermined ends.¹⁶

Propaganda is the manipulation of the public to the end of securing some specific action.¹⁷

Propaganda is a systematic direction of effort to gain support for an opinion, doctrine, or course of action.¹⁸

Propaganda is the 'dissemination of interested information and opinion.¹⁹

Propaganda seeks to present a part of the facts, to distort their relations, and to force conclusions which could not be drawn from a complete and candid survey of all the facts.²⁰

Propaganda is promotion which is veiled in one way or another as to (1) its origin or sources, (2) the interests involved, (3) the methods employed, (4) the content spread, and (5) the results accruing to the victims — any one, any two, any three, any four, or all five.²¹

¹⁵ The reader will find an interesting discussion of propaganda in William Albig, *Public Opinion* (McGraw-Hill Book Co., (1939), especially Chaps. XVII, XVIII. See also Leonard W. Doob, *Public Opinion and Propaganda* (Henry Holt & Co., 1948), and Emil Lederer, *State of the Masses* (W. W. Norton and Co., 1940).

¹⁶ *Propaganda Analysis*, I, No. 1 (Oct. 1937), p. 1.

¹⁷ E. D. Martin, "Are We Victims of Propaganda?" *Forum*, LXXXI, pp. 142 ff.

¹⁸ William G. Carr, "The Riddle of Propaganda in the Schools," *American School Board Journal* (Sept. 1932), 83, p. 26.

¹⁹ R. J. G. Wreford, "Propaganda Evil and Good," *Nineteenth Century* (April 1923), p. 514.

²⁰ Calvin Coolidge, in an address before the Association of Newspaper Editors, Washington, D. C.

²¹ Frederick E. Lumley, *The Propaganda Menace* (Century Co., 1933), p. 44. For an especially good discussion on many conceptions of propaganda, see Chap. II.

These definitions bear out, in the main, the statements made in the previous paragraphs. More important than definitions of propaganda are, as has been intimated, the impressions which many people have toward it because of certain more or less obvious self-centered controls attempted by many of its users. The student of school-community relations should be familiar with the nature of propaganda, the various attitudes towards it, and the attempts made by its many users to influence public education.

OBJECTIONABLE NATURE OF PROPAGANDA

If we define propaganda as any opinion or action intended to influence the thoughts and actions of others, much that has been said earlier in regard to public opinion applies as well to propaganda. Where the use of propaganda is in conformity with the furtherance of democratic objectives, no valid objections may be offered to it. It becomes objectionable when it is inimical to democracy's ideals and objectives.

In recent years propaganda, as it applies to education, has come to be regarded in an unfavorable light, largely for the following reasons: (1) it often uses methods that are not strictly honest; (2) it often attempts to mold and direct public opinion for antisocial, undemocratic, or selfish purposes; (3) it seeks to "put something over" on the people rather than encourage critical and independent thinking; and (4) the real motives and purposes of professional propagandists are quite often hidden.

Lumley²² considers education and propaganda as contradictions in terms and mutually exclusive. Education, he believes, seeks to discover truth, disseminate truth, and create a type of public opinion based on facts, whereas propaganda usually seeks to distort the truth and by subtle presentation lead to subversive ends without primary regard for truth. However, such may not always be the case: where the truth fits the purposes intended, truth may be overstressed.

PROPAGANDA AND THE EMOTIONS

It is to be noted that, although sound public opinion is based upon an appeal to reason, all the facts being known, propagandists make their appeal principally to the emotions. If one examines the devices of the propagandists, one will note that they all depend upon emotion. Appeal is made to our loves and hates, our likes and dislikes, our pride and shame, our courage and fears, our selfishness and unselfishness. The important point to note here is a condemnation not of emotion as an essential aspect of human existence but of the unrestricted use of a powerful emotional stimulus under false or misleading guise and without the full truth to gain subversive ends.

²² *Ibid.*, p. 21.

PROPAGANDA IN THE SCHOOLS

Propaganda enters into public education at many points. This has been due largely to the discovery of the universality of the public schools and of the especially gullible nature of children. Unfortunately, public-school administrators and teachers have allowed themselves to depart, to some extent at least, from their primary obligations to childhood and have become equally gullible in being influenced by self-centered propaganda.

Some indications of the nature of the media selected by propagandists for activities within the schools may be gathered from Parker's list of eight media most frequently used:²³

1. Free distribution of manufactured products, such as toothpaste or breakfast foods.
2. The distribution of various forms of teaching aids which point to attitudes that will lead to the purchase of certain articles or to certain desired lines of action.
3. The distribution of accessories bearing printed advertisements, such as blotters, pencils, erasers, and book covers.
4. The insertion of biased statements in texts.
5. The promotion of contests in such fields as essay writing, poster making, oratory, and spelling, in which the ultimate purpose is biased.
6. The furnishing of outside speakers.
7. Agitation for the observance of special days and weeks.
8. Utilization of school children for collecting, donating, or appearing in public functions.

PROPAGANDA AND EDUCATION

As we have indicated, propaganda and education differ in certain particulars. Propaganda attempts to teach *what* to think and *in what way* to react. Education teaches *how* to think, and the development of the means for making the correct choices under a given group of circumstances. Even here a fine line of distinction may be difficult to draw. Within the school itself the means of propaganda have been and are being used for administrative purposes. Methods of propaganda have been used in attempts to indoctrinate public-school children. Much opposition has been offered to this use because of the immaturity of children, since like the wedding guest in "The Ancient Mariner," childhood cannot "choose but hear."

Indoctrination considered in this light raises many interesting questions as to the purpose of education. It has always been considered a

²³ Howard L. Parker, "A Plan for Sifting Propaganda in the Schools," *Elementary School Journal* (Dec. 1932), 33, pp. 277-282.

major function of education, Professor Bode points out, to preserve the values of the past, and he believes it will be so in the future. But there is a changed emphasis. Although the traditions and values of the past are represented in the spirit of the nation, its conception of its mission and destiny changes with time. Professor Bode²⁴ says:

But the peculiarity of the present situation lies in the fact that the meaning of these traditions has become uncertain. Traditions like all other human affairs are subject to growth and change. In recent times the tempo of change has been so rapid that we are in danger of losing our bearings. Consequently the task of education has become much more complicated. Instead of simply transmitting the values of the past, it must take account of the uncertainty and disagreements as to what these values mean in our own day and age.

Public-school teachers and administrators would seem to be caught between two forces in the consideration of education and propaganda—namely, those values and traditions which by the inheritance of the culture should be passed along to the rising generation in the light of a changing social order, and those forces and pressures represented by extra-school interests which seek through altruistic or selfish purposes, or both, to influence public educational outcomes, and through them society in general. The educationist must exercise discretionary power in regard to the flow of these forces through the educational sluice gates, and for this reason, if for no other, has a primary obligation to understand propaganda and its methods. Whatever the pressure, he is still the educational leader, a duty not to be renounced.

PROPAGANDA APPRAISEMENT

THE APPROACH

James Harvey Robinson²⁵ quotes an old Stoic proverb which observes that men are tormented by the opinions they have of things rather than by the things themselves. Such would appear to be the situation in the creation of sound public opinion, which will meet adequately the problems created by propaganda in the public schools. The creation of a sound discriminating mind in regard to educational matters is the first goal and must be sought by members of the board of education, school administrators, teachers, and school children. The sources of propaganda, the purposes, and the means used must be brought to light. To be fair and open

²⁴ Boyd H. Bode, "A New Era in Education," *Education Digest*, Oct. 1937.

²⁵ *The Mind in the Making* (Harper and Brothers, 1921), p. 3.

mind in all things is greatly to be desired. Controversial matters should meet the light of healthy discussion through open-forum methods. No special private or prior rights are guaranteed to any individual, group, or interest when the rights of childhood are concerned.

ATTITUDES TOWARDS PROPAGANDA

Educators generally consider the efforts of the propagandists as either inimical to the work of the public schools, or at least in need of close scrutiny. For several years the National Education Association has appointed committees to study the problem, and members of boards of education have considered it important enough to adopt rules and regulations in regard to the use of the public schools by outside agencies and activities. Administrative officers have been given the power to bar or to remove from the schools any propaganda material found objectionable. This becomes an important responsibility. The problems likely to arise as a result are many and vexatious.

CRITERIA FOR APPRAISEMENT

To set up some safe guides in dealing with propaganda is not an easy task. Sincerity is not always a guide, nor is the purpose of enlightenment or information unless groups as a whole over long periods are considered. We cannot appraise propaganda by its success, its popular appeal, or its obvious influence. We are on much safer grounds when we examine the methods and appeals which the propagandist makes.²⁶

Careful discrimination must be between the propagandist group which checks all facts carefully, presents all sides clearly, invites full discussion, and does not stifle opposition, even if it is obviously a pressure group, and the group whose motives are hidden in secrecy, indirection, and dissimulation. Care must be taken to observe whether there is an appeal to emotion rather than reason, deliberate falsification or distortion of facts, or an effort to gag or otherwise silence full discussion or opposition in any form.

The attitudes and activities of leaders of the group in question should be studied as to their accord with sound democratic principles and community interests, especially as to education. The nature of the organization and its affairs in general must be checked in the light of democratic living.

The success of the propagandists offers a criterion of judgment. If school board members or administrators forget their legal and educational

²⁶ Robert M. MacIver, "Social Pressures," *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, VI, p. 345.

responsibilities and submit to propagandists' demands in regard to employment or dismissal of employees, the curriculum, athletics, classroom methods, the purchase of supplies or financial affairs, motives behind these demands may be immediately questioned. Where teachers are intimidated through threats or unfair tactics, suspicion is aroused as to what lies behind them. Such seemingly magnanimous proposals as essay contests, free materials, loyalty oaths, free speeches, and the like must be viewed in the light of the larger purposes of education and the educational welfare of the child. Lumley has stated it well when he declares that the best protection from propaganda is in learning to *think straight*.²⁷

EDUCATION IN RELATION TO PUBLIC OPINION AND PROPAGANDA

In an earlier chapter, we have seen that the public school is America's peculiar contribution to the cause, continuance, and preservation of democracy. It has a peculiar function—namely, to effect the promises of American democracy, that heritage which every child in America has the right to expect because he is an American. Beard²⁸ has said that it is the function of education

to guard, cherish, advance, and make available in the life of coming generations the funded and growing wisdom, knowledge and aspirations of the race. This involves the dissemination of knowledge, the liberation of minds, the development of skills, the promotion of free inquiries, the encouragement of the creative or inventive spirit, and the establishment of wholesome attitudes toward order and change—all useful in the good life for each person in the practical arts, and in the maintenance and improvement of American society, as our society, in the world of nations.

Such a definition, comprehensive as it is, involves, first, social reproduction of the cultural heritage in the individual, focused in the direction of fitting him to become a useful as well as responsible member.

There is a second aspect of this definition which is essential to its realization—namely, that of social change. Education must be dynamic by its very nature, adapting itself to a changing society. Changing social, economic, and political conditions affect individual and group living. Old ideas give way to new and old institutions crumble or are modified. Education to be dynamic must adapt itself to a dynamic society. While

²⁷ Lumley, *op. cit.*

²⁸ *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy* (National Education Association, 1937), p. 78.

education follows, it also leads. It is both conservation and progress. It seeks to create balance.

ARTICULATING PUBLIC SENTIMENT

Abraham Lincoln once remarked, "Public sentiment is everything. With public sentiment nothing can fail. Without it, nothing can succeed. Consequently, he who molds public sentiment goes deeper than he who enacts statutes or pronounces decisions. He makes statutes and decisions possible or impossible to execute." This statement applies significantly to education. No school system can rise to any degree of effectiveness without favorable public sentiment, nor can any effective school system remain effective long without the support of its citizens.

If one characteristic of democracy is the attempt to articulate effectively public opinion, it is essential to know, with some degree of certainty, the extent to which individual thinking in the modern community is derived from one's relationships to functional social groups. In most instances, public sentiment becomes articulated through civic groups, labor unions, parent-teacher associations, service clubs, church organizations, and chambers of commerce. A vast number of organizations in the modern community, fraternal, social, labor, political, patriotic, and educational, exert, directly or indirectly, an influence, open or hidden, on public education. The question may not be whether or not to allow these groups to influence the school and its policies; rather the goal is to use them effectively as legitimate expressions of public opinion in the development of school policy and the support of its activities. In so doing, the educational leader will be guided by the application of those criteria which determined their usefulness.

RESPONSIBILITY OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

It is here that education makes its point of contact with the people through public opinion. Educational leadership must have an awareness of the community backgrounds, the interests, needs, attitudes, and conditions of the people. Such leadership must be quickly conscious of public sensitivity. Intuition or conscience or the accidents of casual judgment cannot be relied upon when we deal with the public about us. Educational leadership must understand the principles of public opinion as well as the nature of the public minds. Such leadership must have proper sources of information as well as means to disseminate proper information, access to sources of public policy, acquaintance with community leaders, responsibility for action when and where needed, and the ability to secure attention and to speak in convincing tones. The problem may

be a difficult one, but the need is important and the responsibility well placed.

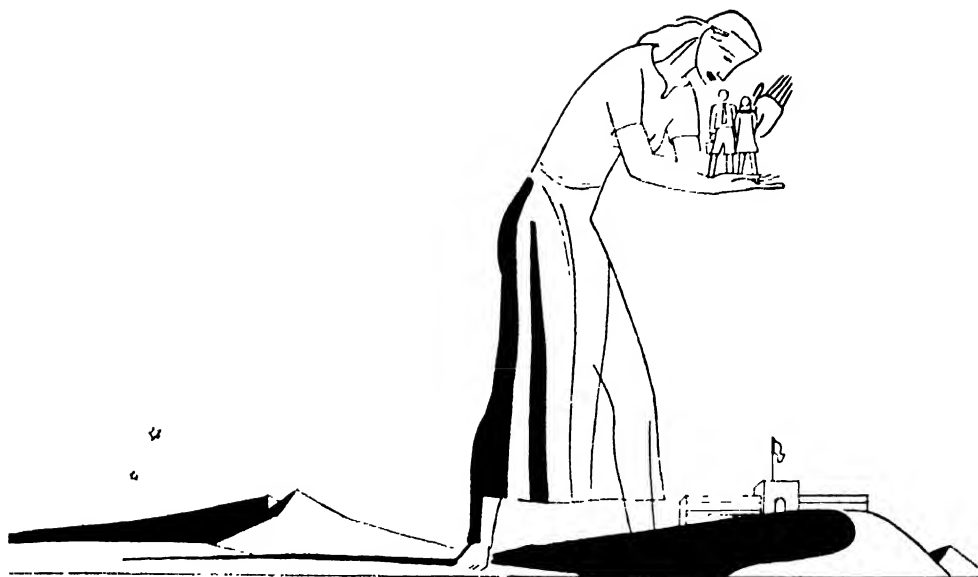
But this responsibility is also a two-way procedure. The schools belong to the people. Public opinion must be given the opportunity for expression, its values weighed, and its purposes evaluated. Ill-timed reaction has been the bane of many school systems when unenlightened public opinion has leaned away from a dynamic education. Thus the educational leader becomes a leader as well as a follower. His considered and courageous judgment is the only safe guide when championing the development of children. He must remember at all times that, although popular judgment may be faulty and ponderous, there is no safe alternative to popular judgment as a basis of social living. The inculcation of right attitudes in boys and girls will go far in developing right attitudes as they become responsible men and women.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What instances can you cite in your community in which the forces of public opinion have been transmitted into public action in regard to the public schools?
2. Apply the attributes of a community as given in this chapter to any selected school community. What relationship do you see between these attributes and the development of public opinion in any community? the use of propaganda?
3. Evaluate Neumeyer's statement as to the formation of public opinion.
4. Compare Lippmann's principles of public opinion with those of (a) Cantril and (b) Doob.
5. Rank the six common devices which influence public opinion in relation to education as classified by the *Fifteenth Yearbook* in order of (a) frequency of use, (b) potency.
6. Can you cite instances in which public opinion in regard to educational issues have been influenced by (a) economic, (b) social, (c) religious contacts of individuals or groups?
7. Which of Parker's eight media of propaganda have been in evidence in your school district? What has been the nature of the influence of these?
8. What evidence can you cite to show that propaganda has been helpful to education?
9. What is the relationship of indoctrination to (a) public opinion (b) propaganda?
10. What evidence is available that propaganda in regard to education is on the wane?
11. Evaluate the arguments that education and propaganda are mutually exclusive.
12. Cite actual examples in which a superintendent of schools keeps his "finger on the public pulse."

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CHAPTER 6

Concepts of School-Community Relations

JOHN BROWN came home one Friday evening with a small pamphlet which had been distributed at work that afternoon. It was called a "house organ." It said that his company wanted to develop better relations with its employees through giving each employee more information about the business. John read it and liked the idea. Showing it to his wife, he said, "Mary, I feel closer to my employers now than I ever did before." Mary got out the pamphlet which the superintendent of schools had distributed at the October meeting of the parent-teacher association and compared them. Both pamphlets were of about the same size. Both conveyed interesting information. "Why, John!" she exclaimed, "each pamphlet is trying to do the same thing."

John agreed. "This looks like a new step in public relations," he said. Mary never quite understood everything in the school's pamphlet and wondered whether the superintendent could not have explained all those figures more clearly. She remarked, "Did the superintendent gather this information for distribution merely because of that criticism at the first

meeting? Why have the schools been so backward in taking the parents into their confidence?" It was true that a "school page" appeared weekly in the local newspaper, but it dealt principally with football and the school's activities. It seldom printed anything about the elementary schools and never once mentioned Rose Marie's first grade. By this time John was reading both pamphlets for the second time.

Mary was eagerly awaiting the next meeting of the parent-teacher association, because she hoped that there would be a public discussion about the pamphlet and especially about the community school. John agreed to go along. By this time he too wondered about this new method of school public relations. He decided to ask some questions of the superintendent and hoped that the board members would be there too. John concluded that his company had "seen the light." There wasn't any sense in keeping things secret. John and Mary both decided that it was time to dress for the class play at the school. Susan was playing the lead.

We have seen that, in earlier periods of American educational history, the school was in many ways a considerable community force. The school lived close to the people. It taught subjects which the people, for the most part, understood. The school was the community center. Local public opinion controlled the school in every way.

Public education became institutionalized when it became a state function. State laws determined the nature of the organization, the personnel, the program. Visiting committees were replaced by superintendents and principals, now clothed with official authority. Academies and high schools supplemented the elementary program, teaching subjects little understood by most folks. A certain aloofness from the people of the community gradually began to characterize public education. Although the board of education remained a powerful community force, more and more responsibility was delegated to the supervisory officers. Even boards of education began to draw away from the people who elected them, regarding their offices as having a certain *official* status, clothing many of their acts in secrecy, and tolerating, if not resenting, public "intrusion."

We do not wish to create the impression that public education, in its entirety, has come to be characterized in this manner. Since education has in many ways followed the examples set by business, it has been merely reflecting an attitude of disdain and disregard for the public similar to that adopted by big business during its early development. As business and industry have come to see the importance of a closer affilia-

tion with the public, so education has, in many places, been progressing to the point of a return to earlier community "intimacy" and cooperation.

It is our purpose here to examine four major concepts of school-community relations which have progressively developed, each of which may be found in practice at the present time. Communities differ markedly in what they wish for their children. Educational leaders differ as much in their regard of the community. Each may be friendly or hostile to the community, or at least to certain groups within the community.

These attitudes toward the community should be considered from two points of view: (1) as they have developed step by step in the same community over periods of time under progressive leadership; and (2) as descriptive of those varying attitudes and feelings now to be found in different communities.

THE CONCEPT OF INDIFFERENCE

DEFINITION AND ANALYSIS

The first concept of community relations may be defined as that state of mind in which there is a partial or complete indifference to, or disregard of, the place of the home and the community in any educational endeavor associated with public education. Attitudes of this nature assumed by public-school authorities are based in part upon the philosophy, however erroneous, that since the public school is a state institution, there is a state mandate to establish and maintain the school enterprise by an independent school board, responsible largely to the state and only mildly to the local community, and to administer this enterprise in accordance with that mandate. This concept presupposes either that all education takes place within the public school or that the public school has no concern with those influences of an educational nature prevalent outside the school and with which the child is in frequent association.

Furthermore, the operation of the compulsory-attendance law places the custody of the child under school control for a specified time each day. *In loco parentis* establishes the nature of this custody. The curriculum is specified by legislative enactment or state supervision. The teaching methods are entirely professional and are therefore controlled within the school. Professional matters must be surrounded at all times with a certain dignity and protection.¹

Moreover, it is assumed that, whenever issues arise, the school is al-

¹ Certain writers have made bold to term this a "public-be-damned" attitude; others use a milder term, "public-be-shunned."

ways, or nearly always, right. In so assuming, public-school authorities have felt amply protected by many court decisions favorable to them. The fact that teachers are state employees certificated by the state, and accountable only to the state through the proper supervisory officer, or to the local school board, whose attitude may be just as indifferent to the community, seems to provide adequate support for this point of view.

NATURE OF CONTACTS

Where an attitude of complete or partial indifference is assumed, it is not to be presumed that there is a complete aloofness between the school and the home and the community. Contacts with the home and community under this category are of three types. The first of these includes all of those reports, publications, or other materials required by law or by the board of education. It must be remembered, however, that the average public intelligence, measured in terms of school achievement, is hardly above the elementary level. A lack of interest coupled with a lack of understanding usually makes such reports of little value to the public—especially if the intention is to make them unintelligible.

A second type of contact includes material reaching the public through necessity or benignancy, such as circulars, slogans, and well-staged commencements, where pageantry prevails and carefully selected orators extol the schools. These materials may be platitudinously vague or they may be attractive “eye-catchers” whose purpose is to secure complacency or support. Continued confidence in the schools is maintained through a quiescent attitude, low taxes, and the hope, on the part of the school authorities, that “nothing will happen.” Discipline is strict, and untoward events are kept as quiet as possible. Parents are not encouraged to visit the schools. There is only a token parent-teacher association or none at all, and there is no other evidence of community cooperation.

A third type includes those contacts with the home which might be classed as official—individual-pupil reports as to school work, and complaints to the home involving disciplinary infractions of the school regulations. Resulting conferences, if any, usually take place at the school and vary from satisfactory to distressing and painful in the extreme. Enforcement of attendance by local police officers is not conducive to improving the state of affairs. Where the end justifies the means, where the public is satisfied, and where things seem to be moving “smoothly,” indifference to the home and the community will continue as the prevailing philosophy.

Recently, some school districts have been developing a type of community contact which, under certain circumstances, must be associated with the concept of indifference. Reference is made to those well-staged

school athletic contests held in huge stadia and attended by citizens *en masse*. If the intent of the athletic program is to direct public attention away from a poor educational program, such a procedure must be classified as indifference to the larger and more satisfying objectives for which public education exists.

SCHOOL PUBLICITY

The second prevailing concept which has characterized school-community relations has been variously termed "school publicity" and "selling the school to the public." As these connotations imply, the public becomes the concern of the school only when there may be "something to sell." There may be a desire to convey certain information, to tell a story, or to gain public support for some desired end.²

FORCES INFLUENCING THIS MOVEMENT

Two forces influence this school public-relations movement: one, economic and the other, scientific. The economic force is usually generated by one or more of the following situations: dissatisfaction with previous educational programs, expansion of the educational program to meet these earlier deficiencies, building programs in larger towns and cities, need for public support to approve bond issues, mounting costs of education to meet those increased school expenditures, especially in face of a diminishing dollar value, and an increase in the number of children going to school for longer periods of time.

Probably as a result of these situations came a movement from within the school itself, which we will term scientific. Through tests, cost studies, school surveys, comparisons, and other critical procedures, the aims of curricula, organization, management, and outcomes of the school were brought under close scrutiny. As Sears³ points out, the new psychology, the new social conception of education, and the increasing knowledge of industrial and business organization and management were brought to bear on the increasing complex problems of education. The scientific findings were impressive, and tradition, opinion, indifference, and self-complacency began to yield to them.

NATURE OF "SELLING THE SCHOOLS" PHILOSOPHY

During the late 'twenties and early 'thirties, a spontaneous movement

² Hagman has identified certain concepts of school-community relations which undoubtedly belong within this classification. See his "Seven Concepts of School-Public Relations," *Nation's Schools*, 40, No. 5 (Nov. 1947), pp. 23-25.

³ Jesse B. Sears, *The School Survey* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1925), p. 2.

which led to the discovery of the public emerged. The impetus to discovery was both from without and within. How to make the proper contacts and relationships to expand the new educational program and still preserve the authority of the school became the problem.

Business furnished the key to the situation. Its various forms of advertising, news promotion, and publicity were getting results in a remarkable period of industrial expansion. Every device known to them was used to sell goods. Prices rose. Times were good. Everyone seemed prosperous. Credit was easy for him who lacked the means to buy.

School administrators learned of these successful business methods from businessmen on the board of education or from publicity directors in school campaigns. The necessity of the occasion often rendered no other course available. Was not education in reality big business? Were not certain forms of business organization and methods already being used successfully in the public schools? And so "selling the schools" to the public was declared to be the method of contact. What had the schools to sell?—bond issues, expanding programs, new buildings, junior high schools, results of tests, school survey recommendations, new educational ideas, athletics, and the "extra-curriculum" program. The seven "cardinal principles"⁴ were reduced to practicality. The parent-teacher movement arose and became popular. The schools found it necessary to compete with business and the stock market for interest in and support of an expanding educational program. As the primary purpose of the advertiser is to sell his product, so the fundamental objective of the administrator was to "sell" his school to his community. The evidence of the sale seemed to be acceptance, acquiescence, and financial support when needed.

Educators have adopted, in many instances, the theory that only those facts should be presented to the community which secure the desired ends. This no doubt has led Moehlman to term this a *partial-fact* policy, declaring, "It represents a judgment upon the part of the executive and school board of *what is best* for the general public."⁵ Apparently this theory has been widely accepted and practiced. However, it leaves the school vulnerable to attacks and criticisms directed against the work of the school which the publicity did not cover.

In school campaigns this method has reached its greatest heights. Professional publicity directors at high fees may be employed and no means are overlooked to achieve the objectives sought.

⁴ See pp. 11-12.

⁵ Arthur B. Moehlman, *Public School Relations* (Rand McNally and Co., 1927), pp. 61-62. Italics not in original. (Used by permission of the publishers).

EVALUATION

Farley⁶ has given us perhaps the best critical evaluation of this philosophy of public relations:

The concept of educational publicity as a means of "selling the schools to the public" is not comprehensive enough, however, to encompass the whole job. The phrase may have value upon certain occasions, and may serve as a stereotype in visualizing some of the functions of publicity for certain people, but it falls far short of describing the practice and suggesting the significance of this new school service. The need for interpretation, like that for administration and for research, has arisen from the nature of organized education itself. For while it may often with advantage employ the principles of psychology used effectively in ordinary advertising, both its objectives and its results differ essentially from those of a sales campaign.

And so the phrase "selling the schools to the public" is inadequate as a concept in public-school relations, largely because it seems to connote something selfish and pernicious. Selling the schools to the public is based upon an unworkable philosophy, in that it is manifestly impossible for the community to buy, or even wish to buy, that which it already possesses, since the schools belong to the people. The public has often become suspicious and resentful, feeling that either the half-truths given them or the essential information denied them have not been in harmony with good educational statesmanship and with what the public has the right to expect of its servants. Something else is needed.

EDUCATIONAL INTERPRETATION

TRANSITION

The interpretative approach to school-community relations was probably the direct outcome of several important developments. First, public dissatisfaction arose over the "selling the schools" concept and the use of questionable materials and methods in the "publicity" campaigns. Selling anticipates value received. An awakened citizenry, sensing the rising costs of education, analyzing survey results pointing out educational misfits and making forward-looking recommendations, felt that there was a lack of value received. Second, by adopting the same means used in the "selling the schools" campaigns, certain interest and pressure groups, having discovered the schools, now sought direct contacts with them for many and varied purposes, both selfish and unselfish. Advertising matter found its

⁶ Belmont Farley, *School Publicity* (Stanford University Press, 1934), p. 6.

way into the schools in the form of free samples of breakfast food, toothbrushes, and toothpaste, or book covers, blotters, and pencils, all bearing printed advertising. The school assembly was utilized by utility companies, political parties, and community organizations. Free exhibits, calendars, films, charts, and posters were also used for private ends. Third, public-school administrators and teachers discovered that public confidence was not permanently secured once the article was "sold." There was need for something more vital, more wholesome, more comprehensive, more interpretative. As the word "interpretation" signifies, the public-school program must be explained, expounded, and made more intelligible. This was especially true because it was discovered that the public is in reality many publics; hence the appeals must be varied, continuous, and carefully studied. Moreover, public-school administrators discovered that they had to compete with many other interests which sought the public's time, attention, and support. These were increasing in number, especially as leisure time increased. Public money was not always easily obtained. The community had become more discriminating.

DEFINITION AND ANALYSIS

The basic principle underlying educational interpretation, then, may be said to be a realization that the public school must comprehend a philosophy of *continuous right relationships* with the community it serves, acquainting the community understandingly with the needs, functions, costs, and outcomes of public education. It involves a resilient sensitivity to the needs, conditions, desires, and attitudes of the community it serves. It involves an adequate understanding of public opinion as a social force in the community, and of social pressures and how to meet them.⁷

Educational interpretation of the public schools implies that the direction and control of any program built upon this philosophy still remain within the public school itself. The public school authorities reach out to understand and interpret the public schools to the community they serve, all the while seeking to locate, define, and crystallize social attitudes, feelings and desires. Interpretation anticipates that the public will accept the schools as they are presented and will assume that the schools have done their best under existing laws and social and economic conditions. Every effort is now made to tell the truth.

⁷ Compare Moehlman's definition of social interpretation: "Social interpretation may be considered as that activity whereby the institution is made aware of community conditions and needs and the factual informational service whereby the people are kept continuously informed of the purpose, value, conditions, and needs of their educational program." Arthur B. Moehlman, *Social Interpretation* (D. Appleton-Century Co., 1938), p. 101.

Hagman's "hands across the table" concept would seem to belong to this philosophy grouping. (Hagman, *op. cit.*).

The school-community relations of many school districts are characterized by the philosophy of educational interpretation, perhaps not by choice in all cases. The public school must be taken to the people, with the administration taking the initiative. All too often, however, interpretation becomes a defense movement, in that past losses must be retrieved, the present status consolidated, and future gains realized. Then, too, the rapid advances made in recent years by those groups who had suddenly discovered the schools as a lucrative medium for the success of their objectives and ventures and the advertisement of their products have also placed the public schools on the defensive.

Education has a definite function to perform. Its purposes must be explained. The needs of the school must be comprehended by the whole community. The educational interests of boys and girls are paramount. As many school administrators and teachers grasped the real meaning of their educational stewardship, they began to take note of the fact that earlier programs of public relations, if any existed, lacked breadth in social vision and understanding and were built upon faulty philosophies.

CRITERIA

There seems to be common agreement among writers as to the criteria for a philosophy of educational interpretation and for evaluating a program of school-community relations based on this philosophy. The *Fifteenth Yearbook*⁸ establishes the following for the program: Is it interesting? Is it understandable? Is it repeated frequently? Is it satisfying? Does it reach everyone in the community? Reeder⁹ contends that since the basis of any public relations program is information, the following standards must be met: truth, unselfishness and absence of bias, continuity, humanization, universality of appeal, sufficiency, and balance. Grinnell¹⁰ points out that a good program must be continuous, honest, inclusive, understandable, dignified but aggressive, reaching everyone in the community, and using every facility at hand. Farley¹¹ suggests the following elements: suitable objectives, plan, interest, the concrete, the vital, the animate, conflict, the unusual, repetition, co-ordination, graphic representation. Moehlman,¹² in discussing the principles of institutional interpretation which have application here, offers a comprehensive list of twelve principles to which the reader is referred. The nature and scope

⁸ "The Improvement of Education," *Fifteenth Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence (National Education Association, 1937), pp. 171-173.

⁹ Ward G. Reeder, *An Introduction to Public School Relations* (Macmillan Co., 1937), pp. 8-12.

¹⁰ J. Erle Grinnell, *Interpreting the Public Schools* (McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1937), p. 26.

¹¹ Farley, *School Publicity*, Chap. V.

¹² Arthur B. Moehlman, *Social Interpretation*, pp. 107-108.

of Moehlman's principles indicate, however, a much broader conception of educational interpretation.

EVALUATION

Perhaps the most distinguishing characteristic of the philosophy of educational interpretation as a concept in school-community relations is the fact that it operates fundamentally as a *one-way procedure*. This means that the entire responsibility for the administration of school-community relations as an administration function resides within and is controlled by the school itself. The public school has met this responsibility when it has *retained public confidence* over the years as evidenced by endorsements of its policies, support of its program, and retention of its personnel. This philosophy of educational interpretation recognizes a need for contacts with the home and the community by providing a constant flow of truthful, appealing, understandable information presented in attractive and satisfying form. This, however, is elementary and passive rather than active in nature. Both the initiative and control reside within the school and must there be maintained. Such activities as may be promoted through such organizations as parent-teacher associations and band mothers' clubs are encouraged because they may provide for additional school needs and support. They are also strategic in importance and readily available for the presentation of educational information. Every advantage is taken of commencements, school exhibits, addresses at community events, and educational publicity through newspapers, radio, "stuffers," and brochures. Unfortunately, many school administrators see in these means opportunities for personal preferment.

The reader has perhaps noted the progressive nature of the development of philosophies underlying school-community relations outlined above. Although observation will reveal varying attitudes toward public-school relations, there is without doubt an appreciable number of school administrators who accept and practice a philosophy of educational interpretation. The old adage that a good school is its best interpretation is not enough. The public must be taken into the school's confidence, truthfully, continuously, understandingly. Without doubt, the advent of educational interpretation has saved the schools from the inroads of serious retrenchment and has been a powerful force in their development.

The principles of educational interpretation rest upon the fundamental concept that, although theoretically the schools belong to the people, the right to control and administer them understandingly is still that of lay control vested in the board of education and professional control vested in the administration. Although there occasionally are isolated

instances of cooperative endeavor, interpretation scarcely admits of any basic form of cooperative arrangement whereby school-community relations become an interaction of school and community. This is its fundamental weakness—it is a *one-way* rather than a *two-way* procedure. The next philosophy overcomes this weakness and provides a more satisfying approach.

COOPERATIVE ENDEAVOR IN THE INTEREST OF COMPLETE CHILD WELFARE

EMPHASIS UPON THE CHILD

As long ago as 1902, John Dewey, in a little pamphlet, *The Child and the Curriculum*,¹³ set forth the educational principle of the psychological approach to child welfare when he said:

The child is the starting point, the center, and the end. His development, his growth, is the ideal. It alone furnishes the standard. To the growth of the child all studies are subservient; they are instruments valued as they serve the needs of growth. Personality, character is more than subject-matter. Not knowledge of information, but self-realization, is the goal. Literally, we must take our stand with the child and our departure from him. It is he and not the subject-matter which determines both the quality and the quantity of learning.

Since 1902, thousands of educators have accepted the philosophy of John Dewey as fundamental in education. At the same time, it is surprising to note how many educators who have accepted these principles in theory have disregarded them in practice. There are perhaps many reasons for this, some of them acceptable. Student population has grown faster than it could be properly assimilated. Prevailing school buildings and facilities were difficult to adapt to modern philosophies of education, even if the leadership had a mind to do so. School board members educated in an earlier philosophy have refused to accept "untried" theories. Teachers and administrators themselves prepared in earlier philosophies did not understand or were unwilling or unable to try to understand or have declared these principles unworkable. In many communities, the leaven of a new dynamic philosophy was unable to permeate the traditional educational thinking of the people.

Several factors have contributed to the movement for the education of the whole child. These include a new psychology directed toward child understanding through experimentation; a scientific movement which

¹³ (University of Chicago Press, 1902), p. 13.

has profoundly affected education itself; the applications of scientific progress in other professions to education, especially medicine and public health, with their applications to child welfare; a new sociology, with its educational implications; a marked increase in all types of community agencies developed in the interests of new-found leisure and social welfare; dissatisfaction, especially among better educated parents, with current educational mass-production techniques; and, lastly, encouraging educational results obtained by progressive administrators and teachers under capable leadership and philosophical direction, which were intelligently publicized.

BASIS OF A PHILOSOPHY

A philosophy of school-community relations centering around cooperative endeavor in the interests of complete child welfare must be built upon a foundation that recognizes certain definite implications for education in terms of child training. The child, because he is an individual, has a personality to develop. He must take certain responsibilities for his own acts and, as he develops, take his place in the social environment in which he lives. The child is immersed in social change which constantly influences his way of living, and he must make constant adjustments to it. To carry out these purposes, there is obvious need for cooperation among all who are associated with his development and influence his behavior in any manner. The school must take the leadership and work cooperatively with the home and the community to this end.

Now note, in contrast, the earlier conception of the place of the school; to it were delegated those functions, varying from relatively simple to more complex, which concerned the intellectual development of the community's children believed to be essential for social participation. The school performed these functions rather effectively, but the community retained in varying degrees all other fundamentals of participation, which were, as Hart¹⁴ points out, work, play, social life, emotional enrichment, the sense of community, and the framework of a personal career. Within recent years social changes affecting the community have been brought about so rapidly that both the school and the community have not had an awareness of them. These changes have given rise to critical analyses of old values. Education has come to have new meanings. Fortunately, the school has been placed in a more strategic position to direct the education of the whole child. The answer is not in building more relationships but in building up a different philosophical approach to the problem—one based upon a recognition, on the part of all concerned in child welfare,

¹⁴ J. K. Hart, *A Social Interpretation of Education* (Henry Holt & Co., 1929), p. 6.

that new values are here to stay and that the complexity of the problems involved demands a common cooperative endeavor on the part of all concerned to harmonize home, school, and community interests, resources, agencies, materials, and institutions adequately in the interests of a better democratic way of living for all children.

Obviously, then, the education of the whole child is a *cooperative endeavor*. The school is but one agency in the process, although it must assume certain responsibilities in directing it. The home has a definite place and a responsibility which it cannot avoid or delegate. The community has certain responsibilities which its members can neither avoid nor fail to assume. The problem is how to coordinate and harmonize all those desirable learning situations in which the child finds himself toward the finer ends of a better living in a democracy, under the cooperative direction of all who are and should be concerned in the endeavor. A further goal is the seeking of more desirable learning experiences and the nullifying of those less desirable in the path toward a better social order.

THE PHILOSOPHY STATED

It is now possible to set forth certain principles which may serve as bases for the formulation of policies and the preparation of school-community relations programs based upon this approach to complete child welfare. These principles may also serve as criteria for the evaluation of any program in progress.

1. Education is a social process in which the child comes more and more to share in the total community consciousness of which he is definitely a part.

2. Community life is the sum total of many agencies, individuals, and institutions, of which the home and the school continue to be the most important for education.

3. Since the child is definitely influenced educationally by many learning situations, education should be concerned in understanding them, cherishing those which are desirable, and discouraging those which are undesirable. To this end there should be thorough agreement as to the desirable aims of community life, of the place and function of the school in its legal and social aspects, of the home, and of each agency or institution.

4. Education of the whole child demands adequate attention to his physical, mental, moral, emotional, social, and spiritual nature. This would seem to be the birthright of every child, regardless of community ideals, culture, or ability or willingness to provide it adequately. A major indication of growth and development is improvement in social behavior and community relationships.

5. The educational direction of the whole child is definitely a profes-

sional responsibility in which the public school looms large in leadership and direction. This may be shared with a cooperative group which includes all agencies engaged in child welfare and development.

6. Primary agencies concerned in the education of the child are the home and the school: the parent and the teacher. To this end, individual and group home-school relationships should be developed which are sufficient to provide a healthy cooperation between them.

7. The quantitative concept of education, in which the individual child is lost in the mass, should give way to the qualitative concept, in which the child becomes an individual to be studied and provided for in relation to his needs, abilities, interests, limitations, and opportunities. Here the need for cooperation is readily apparent.

8. The complexity of the problem of child welfare in each community makes it all the more a cooperative endeavor in which all those providing learning situations for children are not only definitely concerned but have a responsibility.

9. The public school should continue to provide more and more adequately those formal aspects of public education. However, any wall of formal self-sufficiency built around the school should be leveled through cohesive relationships with the community's home, social, religious, and industrial life.

10. In planning a program built upon cooperative endeavor the place of the home and the parent, community institutions, community leadership, and all other interested individuals and groups should be definitely determined under school leadership through some form of community council or other cooperative means.

11. More and more, the child should come to have a definite place in the cooperative endeavor, through understanding, limited participation, and social relationships. The nature and extent of these will need to be studied carefully.

IMPLEMENTING PHILOSOPHIES OF SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

One of the most difficult problems facing educational leadership is the implementation of a philosophy which may be held with regard to education in general or an educational function in particular. Although society has entrusted to the school the formal process of education, it is apparent that educational opportunities vary from a simple elementary education of fundamental knowledges and skills to a complex and varied program of educational offerings involving complete child welfare for all the children and extending even to adulthood. It is important to point out that (1) communities differ in what they desire educationally for their children; (2) lay direction tends to follow community attitudes and patterns; (3) state leadership through legislation is a powerful stimulus; (4) com-

munity educational leadership is too often inclined to follow rather than direct lay leadership in educational matters; (5) in dynamic educational leadership should lie the key to educational progress; (6) naturally belonging to the proper administrative offices, it may be participated in by principals, teachers, councils, or committees to which are extended the task of building citizens.

Dynamic educational leadership should select the most advanced and satisfying philosophy which will attain the ends which education seeks for that community. Although it may not be immediately possible to put such a philosophy into effect, the best educational procedure begins with a learning situation where the subject is and seeks to move on to higher levels as rapidly as conditions permit. Ultimate ends are not always attainable immediately, and "back tracking" may be necessary at times, but progress must be consistently forward.

A philosophy of cooperative endeavor in the interests of complete child welfare provides most adequately for that type of education satisfying the needs of the whole child. It seems most adequate in respect to education as social reliving, adaptation, regeneration, and progressive development during all waking hours in the life of the individual. It seems to fit most completely social change and the urgent necessity on the part of all concerned in the educational process to harmonize the home, the school, and all community interests and agencies and resources adequately and completely in the interests of a better democratic way of living for all children. The principal problem is how to organize and administer a program which will provide for this object.

In conclusion we must again emphasize that the wise and far-seeing educational statesman begins at the point where his school and community are in initiating his leadership and developing his program. In no sense are his philosophy and approach different from those of a wise and efficient teacher.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Examine the statement: "The nature of the educational pattern is molded in conformity with the social philosophy." Can this statement be substantiated in: (a) Ancient Greece, (b) Soviet Russia, (c) Nazi Germany, (d) The Colonial South, (e) The United States as a whole?
2. Examine critically the significance of education as: (a) social reliving, (b) social adjustment, (c) social regeneration.
3. Cite five instances of functional changes in the home within two generations. How have these affected education, if at all?
4. Similarly, cite five instances of functional changes in the (a) urban community, (b) rural community. Have these affected education?

5. To what extent is the responsibility of educational leadership resident within the schools?
6. Characterize selected communities in order to indicate attitudes held by (1) administrators toward the community, (2) patrons toward their school.
7. To what extent is indifference in the part of the school to the community, or vice versa, to be commended? to be condemned?
8. Can you cite instances in which the seven "cardinal principles" of secondary education have contributed to better public school relations?
9. Assume an attitude toward the "selling the schools" approach to community relations, and examine your attitude in regard to: (a) results achieved, (b) misplacement of public confidence, (c) lack of continuity, (d) faulty psychological approach.
10. To what extent is it true that educational interpretation is merely "extended school publicity?"
11. Can any program of school-community relations be justified on the basis of a proper accounting of educational stewardship? Which?
12. Examine the statement: "Many educators who have accepted the theories of John Dewey have denied them in practice."
13. Examine critically the statement that "education of the whole child is a cooperative endeavor."
14. Evaluate the principles proposed as the basis of a program of school-community relations.
15. Classify at least ten educational leaders of your acquaintance as to their concepts of community relations. To what extent do they agree with the four philosophies outlined?
16. How rapidly can one progress from one philosophical stage to another? What are some determining factors?

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PART THREE

THE SCHOOL'S RESPONSIBILITY



CHAPTER 7

The Board of Education and the Administrative Staff

THE SCHOOL BOARD of Allison City holds its regular monthly meeting on the first Tuesday of the month. The members of the board are respected and influential citizens who occupy positions of responsibility in business and the skilled trades. Dr. Morrison, the president, has been a member for more than thirty years. He is the Brown's family physician and has known their children as well as many others since babyhood. Recently a woman was elected to the board, largely at the suggestion of the parent-teacher association and the Woman's Club. John Brown was not sure that this was a good idea. He thought "running the schools" was a man's job. Anyhow, the men always smoked.

That Tuesday night, the superintendent gave each member a copy of the pamphlet of school information he had distributed at the parent-teacher association the previous month. He began to explain it when Mrs. Reynolds, the woman member, asked, "Why haven't the people been given this information long ago? Why did you wait until this matter was brought to your attention by those critics?" The superintendent explained

that the people were not ready. He felt that the time was now ripe for a new policy in school-community relations in Allison City. He proposed that more attention should be devoted to this activity, and that the board of education should authorize him to study the situation and prepare a plan of school-community relations to be presented at the next meeting.

After much discussion and not too much enthusiasm, Mrs. Reynolds moved that the superintendent be empowered to proceed as he suggested. The motion carried by a four-three vote. Mrs. Reynolds was elated, but the superintendent was not sure he had the board completely with him. He decided to proceed cautiously. He would begin with his principals and teachers. He knew he could count on Miss Stevens, principal of the Lincoln School. She was always cooperative.



In order to integrate school living more adequately with community living, it is obvious that ways and means must be provided to bring about a better understanding between the school and community. In this way more complete social living for all may result. Since all of life's experiences are educative in one way or another, the public school has an obligation to be concerned with the improvement of community living at every opportunity. Many of the influences which mold modern youth are at cross purposes from the standpoint of the objectives and ideals of modern education. In fact, the public school must often counteract many harmful social influences. For example, while seeking to develop strong characters in boys and girls, the community tolerates conditions which destroy character. The school has an obligation to strengthen those influences in each community which appear to be in full accord with democratic principles and desirable educational objectives.

In order that these ends may be attained certain responsibilities are resident within the public school. These responsibilities must be definitely placed. There must be an appropriate philosophy in harmony with community understanding. Adequate means must be made available for its accomplishment. It is the purpose of this and several succeeding chapters to indicate the nature of these responsibilities and the personnel best qualified to administer them. Emphasis at all times in school-community relations should be on the human factor—that is, on the personnel concerned in the relationship rather than the agencies used, which, although necessary to the ends to be achieved, are means and must always be considered as such. The human factor should never be lost sight of.

This chapter concerns the responsibilities of (a) the board of educa-

tion, (b) the superintendent, his office and his staff, and (c) the principal in their respective relationships with the community.

BOARD OF EDUCATION

NATURE

The typical board of education is composed of five to seven members. In some communities, the number may be as low as three or as high as fifteen or more. Usually one is a housewife. Most board members have children in school. For the most part, they are elected by the people to serve from three to six years. In age and length of service they show considerable diversity, with generally long continuity of service. With the exception of the officers of the board, they receive no salary. They devote an average of about fifty hours a year to their duties. It is safe to conclude that most of the 400,000 school board members of the United States are men and women of integrity and consider their office as a public trust.¹

POLICY MAKING

The board of education is an agency of the state carrying out the will of the legislative assembly. It is a legislative policy-making body in the community which it specifically represents. As such it is empowered to make effective the state educational plan in that locality. Beyond the mandatory provisions of that plan, it is empowered to provide a program of education conditioned by an interpretation of community needs and in response to an expression of community consciousness with respect to those needs. In addition it has the responsibility to report to the community concerning its stewardship. Moeblman terms its function in this respect a "buffer or equalizer between the professional will on one hand, and the social will on the other."² To do so adequately may require professional assistance within the school, and community response within the community.

In summary, the board of education has the following responsibilities: (1) it is the agent of the state; (2) it interprets community needs; (3) it carries out these needs in terms of such specific projects as levying taxes,

¹ The reader will find a more complete statement of the board of education and its functions in Arthur B. Moeblman, *School Administration* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940), p. 9; and Ward G. Reeder, *The Fundamentals of Public School Administration* (Macmillan Co., 1941), Chap. IV.

² Arthur B. Moeblman, *Social Interpretation* (D. Appleton-Century Company, 1938), p. 165.

school budgets, and school building campaigns; and (4) it appraises and interprets the educational program to the community. In order to accomplish these purposes, the board of education must have at hand constant sources of information and be in close contact with the people. Members must maintain good relationships with the school personnel, have access to official reports and documentary materials, and attend such means of in-service improvement as directors meetings and conferences.

INTERNAL RELATIONS

Since the board of education is a policy making body, it obviously must have some adequate conception of good schools and must be adequately informed concerning the nature and needs of the schools. The board's first important responsibility is to select a good superintendent of schools. Once selected, he should be recognized as their chief executive officer. In cooperation with the superintendent, an adequate staff should be selected. The morale of the staff should be maintained through adequate channels of communication, satisfactory salaries and working conditions, fairness in all dealings, adjustment of grievances, cooperation in planning, and a feeling of belonging on the part of all concerned.

EXTERNAL RELATIONS

With the public the board members maintain a dual responsibility: (1) they are representative of the public and (2) they are their educational leaders. The principal problem is to maintain a balance between the two. As representatives they must remember that the community is composed of many "wills," expressed in many ways. Each of these may represent an attitude and may offer suggestions as to educational policy. Parents who have children in school differ in this respect from those who do not. The problem is to make effective contacts with representative individuals and groups. To accomplish this, Davies and Hosler³ offer these suggestions: (1) open meetings of the board, (2) community discussion groups, (3) advisory commissions, (4) polls of public opinion, (5) personal contact of board members, and (6) organizations such as the parent-teacher association.

As leaders of the people they must constantly appraise their schools in the light of a "good school system." To accomplish this several suggestions are offered:⁴ Each member of the board should (1) assume some definite responsibility; (2) set up committees to study the needs of the

³ Daniel R. Davies and Fred W. Hosler, *The Challenge of School Board Membership* (Chartwell House, Inc., 1949), Chap. IV

⁴ *Ibid.*

community; (3) invite wide participation of citizens in planning; (4) utilize community resources; (5) establish adult education programs; (6) promote wide use of the school plant; and (7) establish contacts with such influential community groups as the press, service organizations, and labor groups.

The meetings of the board of education are public, since the board's business is the community's business. They should be conducted in a businesslike manner with dispatch, since the board of education is a legislative and policy-making body. Visiting citizens should be accorded courteous treatment, listened to respectfully when grievances are presented, and be assured of careful consideration if their cause is just. Community confidence in the board of education is secured where honesty, fairness, businesslike procedures, open discussion, and absence of bickering and jealousy prevail. Board members must not be associated with nepotism, dissimulation, dishonesty, assumption of unauthorized executive authority, partisanship, gossip, or press conflicts. They should perform their duties as true representatives of the citizens they serve.

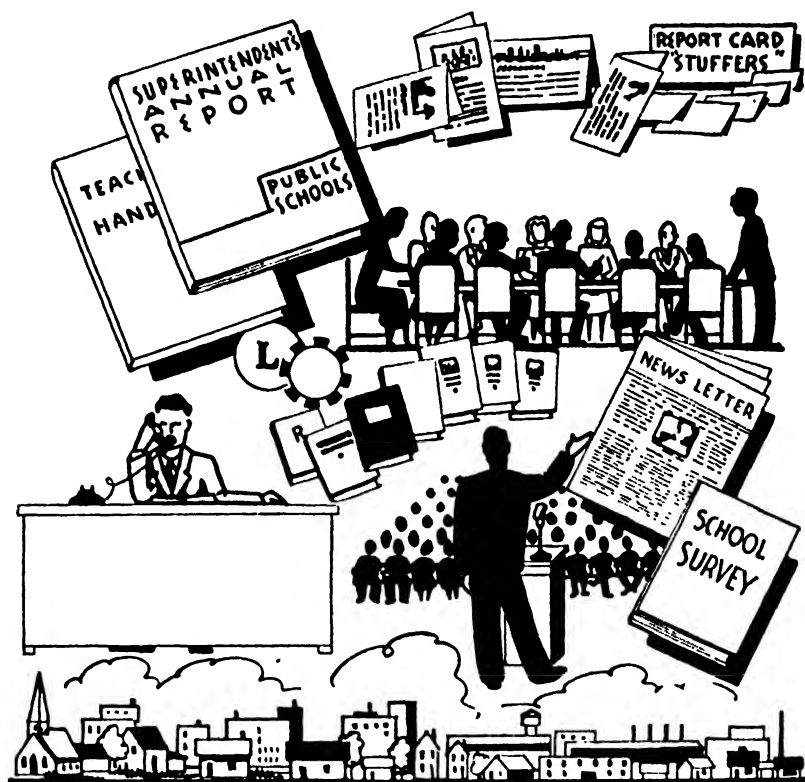
THE SUPERINTENDENT AND HIS OFFICE

INTERNAL RELATIONS

The Superintendent of Schools. The superintendent of schools is the chief executive officer of the board of education. He has far greater responsibilities, however, as the educational leader of the school-community. His duties might be classified as (1) execution of the policies of the state and the board of education; (2) constant appraisal of the school and school needs; (3) provision of information to the board of education and the community concerning the needs of the schools; and (4) creative leadership in school and community in the development of a sound educational program and the creation of morale and good will.

The Superintendent's Office. Since the superintendent of schools is an important public officer, his office should represent the business efficiency which the board of education and the public would naturally expect in an official so vital to community living. Through his office he makes personal contacts not only with his staff members and school personnel but with citizens of the community. The superintendent should be readily accessible to board members, staff, teachers, and the general public. A tactful and efficient secretary, together with other contact personnel, is invaluable in conserving the time of the superintendent as well as the public. A dignified and businesslike appearance should characterize his office. The

visitor to the office of public-school officials should carry away with him a feeling of friendliness, confidence in the schools and their leadership, and complete satisfaction with respect to the purpose of his visit. Such a visitor should be made to feel that he is included in the organization known as the "friends of the schools."



THE RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS FOR SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Internal Relations. One of the first steps in organizing a program of school-community relations is the development of a happy, informative, and cooperative relationship within the school itself among all personnel. Since the public school is an institution designed to prepare for democratic living, an atmosphere of democratic living should pervade the institution itself.⁵ Decisions should be reached through cooperative action. Every idea, wherever the source, is entitled to recognition and a fair hearing. Since the success of the enterprise is the result of the combined efforts

⁵ See *Educational Leaders—Their Function and Preparation* (Second Work Conference Report of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, 1948).

of all working together, every member can make a unique and important contribution and should be encouraged to do so. Good will and harmony with each respecting the person and work of the other are the end results of a desirable philosophy of internal relations. In order to put into effect a program based on this approach, the following devices and procedures may be helpful.

The House Organ. Industrial management has long used the house organ as a means of diminishing the distance between employees and management, and to make up for the lack of close personal contacts. More recently, the school house organ has come to be used widely in the public schools, although education has lagged far behind business in its effective use.

The school house organ may be defined as any bulletin, magazine, or pamphlet issued by the administrative staff, or under its direction, for the purpose of informing, stimulating, or securing the greater cooperation of staff members, supervisors, teachers, or the nonprofessional staff and indirectly, through them, the pupils. It is now largely used as a point of contact between the administration and principals and teachers. This is especially true in large school systems, where the distance between the superintendent and teachers makes such a device necessary.

No uniformity seems to characterize the editorship of the school house organ or the nature of its contents. It may be edited by the superintendent or his associate; by a group of principals or teachers associated together; or by the teachers themselves. The editorial policy may be personal—that is, a direct form of contact between the staff and the teacher—or it may be impersonal—that is, the material may be anonymous in character, as in a newspaper representing the school system as a whole. House organs may include signed articles, school data, illustrations, directions, research problems, official notices, announcements, appreciative sketches of teachers and others, surveys of conditions within the school, inspirational matters, reviews of professional books or timely articles, and similar information. Since the school house organ is considered to be the official publication of the school district, its cost is more likely to be borne by the school district. Occasionally, it is financed by the teachers' association.

If a spirit of cooperation in harmony with the principles of democratic management is to be developed and maintained in a school system, it is important that the editorial policies and management be in entire accord with these principles. Teachers should have a share in policy construction. They should be given an opportunity to react to the contents of the house organ, to evaluate, and to offer suggestions. Moreover, its distribution should not be limited to the professional staff. Members of the board of

education, officers of parent-teacher associations, prominent laymen interested in the schools, the nonprofessional staff, and others should receive copies, not only to be adequately informed as to the welfare of the schools but to feel that oneness of purpose which should characterize the educational endeavor.

The Teacher's Handbook. In order to give the teacher specific information and direction concerning the work of the school, documents variously known as handbooks, manuals, directories, school procedures, and so forth have been developed in many school systems. Prepared by superintendents, or more often by principals or committees of the supervisory staff, these sources of school information are intended to save valuable time for teachers and pupils and assist in developing a smooth-working school organization.

The contents of the handbook or manual naturally vary according to the size, location, and type of school, and policies of the administration. Usually such matters as the administrative organization, information as to school districts, facts for teachers, school calendar, course of study, directory, rules and regulations of the board of education, and specific rules and suggestions for classroom management are included.⁶

It is important that the teacher's handbook be thoroughly revised (not merely reprinted) at least annually or semiannually, so that suggestions of teachers and others concerned may be incorporated. Contents of the handbook may thus be better adapted to the needs and purposes of the educational system, and teachers may feel that they are more and more part of the school organization.

The primary purpose of the teacher's handbook is to provide an agency which may develop desirable personnel relationships within the school system. However, information gained thereby may better equip the teaching force to interpret the work of the school to the parents and the general public, thus bringing about more wholesome school-community relationships. As in the case of the school house organ, it would not be amiss to place copies in the hands of members of the board of education, officers of the parent-teacher association, and selected community leaders. No point of contact by means of which these leaders may be kept reliably informed of the work of public schools should be overlooked.

Superintendent's Advisory Council. Regular meetings of staff officers in larger school systems have been common for many years. These officials review school policies and plan for a better school system. A recent tend-

⁶ A study of the *Handbook for Elementary Teachers* of Buffalo, N. Y., is reported by Reeder, *Fundamentals of Public School Administration*, pp. 117-126, who lists a total of 78 topics.

ency is to enlarge the scope of advisory relationships through a superintendent's advisory council, composed of representatives of all professional personnel, including principals and teachers. Such a council, if properly chosen, can bring together the problems and points of view of their associates, and, if free to express themselves, can convey their thinking effectively. On the other hand, these representatives can have a better understanding of the problems of the administrative staff and can, in turn, transmit a better morale within the teaching staff.

Teacher Groups. Teachers' meetings have possibilities, if properly planned and conducted, in developing morale and better internal relations within a school system. They can be used to impart information, gauge teacher opinion, develop policy, and, above all, develop the solidarity essential to a well-managed school.

Local teachers' associations have abundant opportunity to build an adequate understanding and cooperation between school and community. Perhaps one good indication of a teacher's professional spirit is his willingness to become a contributing as well as an actively participating member. Through these associations, teachers can come to have a better realization of their common problems. They can participate in discussions "on their own level" and can exercise degrees of leadership available perhaps in no other manner. Frank discussion should characterize all meetings. The focus of attention should always be the child. The teachers' organization can (1) enable teachers to understand better the community and the homes from which the children come; (2) help formulate the policies and problems of the school which may relate to the home and the community; (3) sponsor effective means to bring about better community relations; (4) help children and their parents get a better understanding of the school and its work; (5) help solve some of the community's problems affecting children, such as health; and (6) adequately inform its members so that each teacher can defend the school when confronted by well-meaning but poorly informed citizens. Some school systems have been encouraging teachers and other staff officers to attend board meetings for the purpose of becoming better acquainted with one another and of developing a better understanding of the administrative and fiscal problems.

EXTERNAL RELATIONS

The administrative staff of a school system is composed of the superintendent of schools as the chief executive officer, assistant superintendents, if any, business manager and staff, directors of various departments, administrative assistants, if any, research staff, supervisors, and any other persons to whom may be assigned some administrative re-

sponsibility. The superintendent of schools must assume general direction of the educational enterprise. Depending upon the size of the school system, however, many of the responsibilities ordinarily lodged in his office are delegated to other staff members. Whatever may be set forth below as the superintendent's responsibility may be delegated by him, and to this end suggestions apply to the staff as well.

In this section will be presented those agencies which the superintendent and his office use as contacts with the community. We have already noted the importance of his office and its environment as a means of creating confidence and developing good will. These suggestions apply likewise to all members of the staff.

The Superintendent's Report. Since the establishment of the public schools, some form of reporting to the board of education, and through them to the general public, has been quite common. This usually has taken the form of an annual report. Its continued use may be ascribed, first of all, to tradition. Legal requirements for reports of school activities have long existed, and some form of school reporting is now required in every state.

The purposes of school reports have been stated as informational to the community concerning the character of the schools⁷ as archival,⁸ and, in terms of its ultimate interpretative uses, as a revealing story of the activities that make a school, dealing not with figures but with children.⁹

Because the superintendent's annual report is official in character, it can become one of the most enlightening means for conveying to the public accurate information concerning the school. Yet, as Grinnell points out,⁹ leading educators have for a generation consistently scolded school executives concerning their annual reports. Even with this extensive criticism, little improvement was made in them until the past two decades. Today many excellent superintendents' reports appear—a development due in part to the recognition of a new *partnership* on the part of the public school with the public. Progressive superintendents are now including pictures of school activities and children, charts, graphs, and other illustrative materials, presenting well-selected and attractively arranged materials in a pleasing, vivid style.

Its Functions. In terms of better school community relations, what is the place and function of the superintendent's report? Since it is an official document, being required by law, the superintendent should make the

⁷ Ward G. Reeder, *Introduction to Public School Relations* (Macmillan Co., 1937). See Chap. V for an interesting account of the development of school reports.

⁸ Arthur B. Moehlman, *Public School Relations* (Rand McNally and Co., 1927), p. 119.

⁹ J. Erle Grinnell, *Interpreting the Public Schools* (McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1937), pp 197, 198.

best possible use of the requirements of law or regulation for the purposes intended. If well organized, the report can be of use not only in the immediate community but in other school districts as well. As an official document, it must present a clear, concise, and accurate survey and record of the public-school enterprise, in such language as can be understood by the public for whom it is intended, and at the same time satisfactory for preservation as usable archives. It should be written and illustrated in such a way that it will appeal to an increasing educational audience, not only of professional and selected lay groups but of all who may have an interest in the work of the schools.

The format of the superintendent's report should include an inviting cover, appealing title, title page, table of contents, good paper, and readable type. The contents should be planned thoughtfully with clear purpose, text written clearly, pictures chosen wisely, graphs presented clearly, and statistics selected carefully. The superintendent's report should record the past, highlight the present, and look to the future.

In addition to annual reports, the administrative office should offer from time to time other reports of a varied nature. These include special bulletins on the work of the school adapted to certain specific purposes, monographs, and pamphlets on pertinent school topics. They may include financial data relating, for example, to the school budget or other matters of financial or statistical interest. Other special reports may be prepared on extracurricular activities, aims and objectives of the school, special building or expansion needs, or other phases of the work of the school. These reports may be printed or mimeographed in folder form or printed in the local newspaper. It is important that the purpose be clearly stated, the information be given clearly and to the point, and some effort be made to evaluate the outcomes.

Report Card "Stuffers." Business and industrial firms have discovered the value of presenting single items of information through small printed leaflets. Many school systems are using this idea effectively in sending home with the pupils' reports a small leaflet containing pertinent information of the moment. At other times, regular news bulletins are sent to the parents. These may originate in the superintendent's office or in individual schools. Pupils are encouraged to take home handbooks, courses of study, circulating illustrative material, copies of news releases, campaign material, and announcements of school events. Whenever issued, these media should be purposeful and informational. Occasionally, they may be designed to fit into some promotional aspect of school policy.

Lay Advisory Councils. In theory the board of education, being a representative group of citizens elected at large, represents all segments

of the community's population. In practice, such is not the case, nor is it possible through the ballot to secure careful appraisal of each candidate for office. Although the board of education is the official legal body, it seems desirable to develop some means whereby the numerous community interests can be organized and represented and be advisory of educational needs and policies.

The community lay advisory council is one means of accomplishing this purpose. It should consist of nine to twenty persons, depending on the size of the community and the variety of interests. It should be constituted by authority of the board and contain representatives both of the board and the superintendent's office. Its function should be strictly advisory, and it should bring together community opinion on educational problems, both majority and minority. The primary purpose is to learn what the community is thinking, what would be acceptable to the people, what timing and other factors are advisable, what information is most needed as of the moment, and in what ways the community can participate in a better educational program. It is not to be expected that unanimous decisions will be reached on all issues, and in this regard considerable educational statesmanship may be required. Care must be taken that these councils do not degenerate into pressure groups, and that the board of education does not lose sight of its legally constituted powers and prerogatives.¹⁰

Personal Contacts. One of the most vital groups of contacts which the superintendent and his office makes with the community is included within his personal relationships within the community he serves. As a member of a service club, he "rubs shoulders" weekly with representatives of the community's professional, industrial, and business life, meeting the community's leaders and learning of its problems and opinions. More often than not, he is called upon to serve as chairman for such community drives as the Red Cross, community chest, and other civic welfare activities. These activities, in turn, must be sponsored within the school. He is likely to be a member of a church and an officer or teacher in it. He may be a member of one or more fraternal organizations, giving considerable time to degree or committee work. He may feel called upon to accept engagements to address parent-teacher associations or civic organizations, or perhaps to be a trustee of a teachers' college. More rarely, superintendents of schools attend the affairs of labor and political organizations. They welcome the opportunity to attend regional, state, and national meetings of their professional group. The problem confronting the educational

¹⁰ Moehlman, *Social Interpretation* p. 18.

statesman is how to budget his time so that there is a proper balance of all of his activities with a reasonable allowance for home and family living.

DIRECTION OF SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

School-community relations is now a generally accepted function of school administration and is a responsibility of the superintendent's office. This function, in brief, may include information to the community, integration of community activities in the development of the educational program, and evaluation of the total enterprise in the light of sound educational objective and desirable social living. The superintendent of schools can either retain this function within his own office or can delegate it. Hickey¹¹ found five prevailing types of organization for this purpose: (1) the superintendent of schools retains the function; (2) he delegates it to an administrative office; (3) he appoints a director of school-community relations with full- or part-time responsibilities; (4) he decentralizes it in each building principal; and (5) he appoints teacher committees to carry it out.

Since the typical school system in the United States is medium or small in size, it is obvious that the direction of this function lies within the immediate office of the educational leader. Quite often it is delegated in part to a staff officer, or distributed in part to building principals. In a later section, each of these types with their appropriate functions will be fully discussed. We are interested at this point only as it bears upon the office of the superintendent.

THE BUILDING PRINCIPAL

STRATEGIC POSITION OF THE BUILDING PRINCIPAL

When parents and citizens in general think of the public schools, to a large degree at least they think of the particular school which their children attend. The plans and policies of the administrative staff become effective to the degree that they reach out through each school. Here is a strategic situation in that responsibility on the part of the school and interest on the part of parents and citizens become points of contact in which there is *mutual concern*. Since there are nearly thirty thousand principals in the United States, it is obvious how far-reaching are the possible relationships through the building principal. As with the super-

¹¹ John M. Hickey, *The Direction of Public School Relations in Cities of the United States* (Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1945), p. 73.

intendents of schools, his responsibilities extend to both internal and external relationships.

As to internal responsibilities, the building principal is responsible within his own school for (1) administration and supervision of school policies and programs, (2) improving the educational program and environment, (3) appraising and reporting educational and social conditions, and (4) furnishing professional leadership in supervision, research, and faculty policies. Many of the suggestions indicated for the superintendent may find application with the principal. He must maintain a good school with good order and morale, and thereby establish the confidence of the citizens of the community as well as the pupils.

Having set his own school in order, he is ready to develop his school-community program. This program might well include (1) thorough understanding of the community served by his school—its homes, citizens, activities, problems, key organizations, and attitudes concerning education in general and school in particular; (2) adaptation of the above to (a) general school policies, and (b) local school policies in school-community relations; (3) professional leadership with teaching and nonteaching personnel and community leaders and groups in developing a program specifically adapted to the school. A specific example is the administration of a parent-teacher association program; (4) informing, interpreting, integrating, and evaluating the school program; (5) locating, analyzing, and eliminating "trouble spots"; (6) offering recommendations for improvement; and (7) personal associations with citizens and organizations within the community, especially the homes and the parents.

In administering his school, the building principal makes many contacts with the community. In fact, his school often reflects the community as to specific educational objectives, its children, program of study, community projects, local conditions, and in many other ways. Usually he has come to know—and be known by—many parents and citizens. He has visited many homes and social agencies, and has probably dealt with many individuals and groups in the interests of his pupils. Local surveys may have been made. He knows and may have participated, willingly or unwillingly, in community controversies. As a principal he is both liked and disliked.

The principal's strategic position gives him double advantage in his school system. To the administration, he is the eyes and ears. He executes policies and, while doing so, sensitizes the administration to conditions within his service area. To the teacher he is leader, guide, and defender, quite often an arbiter, especially in relation to those pupils' difficulties in which parental concern enters. To the parent and community he becomes

the interpreter of the school as well as a "shock trooper." The community reflects his school, as the school reflects the community. The building principal should therefore study his community and organize the functions of his position accordingly. If the final outcome of the building principal's position is that of developing happy, successful pupils, he will probably do much in creating an effective favorable attitude toward the school on the part of teachers, pupils, parents, and community.

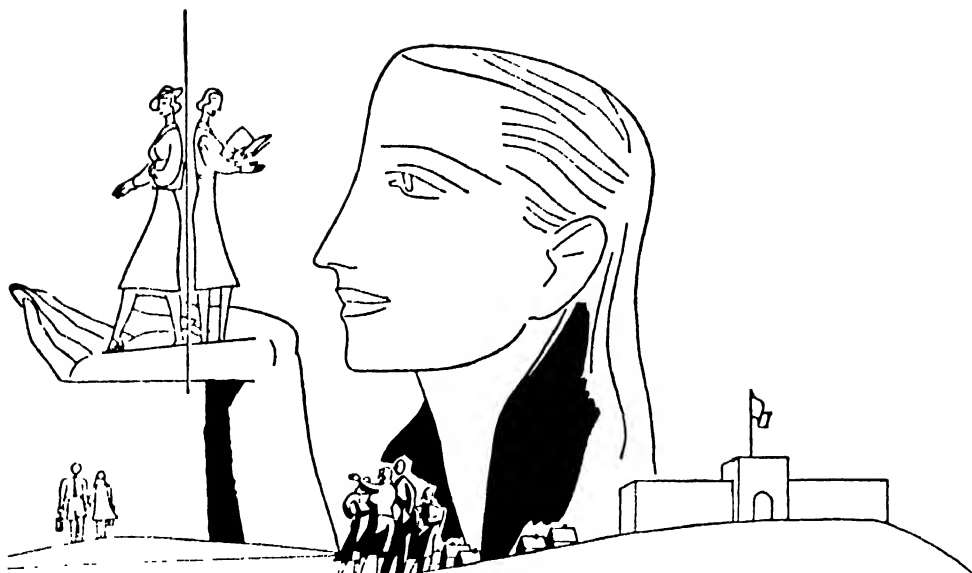
QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. In practice, to what extent is a board of education a representative body?
2. To what extent is the establishment of a lay advisory council sound administrative procedure? How would you go about setting up such a council?
3. Compare several superintendents' offices as to your general impression, using the criteria indicated in the chapter. Make specific suggestions for improvement.
4. To what extent is it true that the maintenance of satisfying internal relations within a school system is the first step in developing satisfying school-community relations?
5. Why has the superintendent's report failed to serve adequately as a potent public relations medium? Collect and evaluate several such reports by the use of some criteria. Offer suggestions for improvement.
6. What are the arguments in favor of annual, monthly, or other periodic reports from the superintendent's office? To whom should they be sent?
7. What are some important values of the school house organ for contacts with home and community?
8. What types of research materials should be disseminated to the public in rural areas? small towns? larger cities? What methods enable better understandings of this material?
9. To what extent is it desirable that each building principal be given full authority to develop his own school-community program? What limitations should govern this policy?
10. Evaluate the school community programs of five building principals.

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CHAPTER 8

The Teachers and the Teaching Profession

THE TEACHER'S ASSOCIATION meeting was just over. There had been a heated discussion that afternoon on the proposals of the superintendent to study together the fundamentals of the community school idea and the resolution adopted by the school board to improve school-community relations in Allison City. Miss Stevens, principal of the Lincoln School, was enthusiastic. "In fact," she said, "there is nothing new in these proposals. We have a most cooperative group of parents and have been doing a number of things for some time." Miss Frost, principal of the First Ward School, remarked that her children came from across the tracks and they need not think much could be done on the South Side.

Everyone liked Mr. Jones, the junior high school principal, and when he spoke they listened carefully. "After all," he said, "good teaching is the most important characteristic of a good school. Parents appreciate good teaching and every effort should be made to be good teachers." In this they all agreed. But the superintendent remarked, "Fundamental as good teaching is, it is not enough. There are many problems in a school-

community that must be solved cooperatively through taking the parents and the community into our confidence. Parents are really interested in what the schools are trying to do. Teachers should understand the homes and the community better. After all, the teachers must do something about those criticisms brought out at the October meeting of the parent-teacher association." Then he read the editorial that had appeared in the local papers.

Upon motion of the junior high school principal, a committee of teachers was authorized to assist the superintendent in developing a school community-relations program. Although no one voted against the motion, it was plain to see that Miss Frost was not in sympathy. Miss Stevens was the logical choice as chairman.

In every community there are many parents who desire good teachers and good teaching in their schools. Only an unnatural parent would want less for his children than he, himself, has been privileged to enjoy. Many parents are conscious of the increasing need for education, knowing that good teachers make good schools. And yet, it is significant to note that many misunderstandings concerning the public schools grow out of unfortunate teacher-pupil relationships, difficulties which center around the teacher as a person or the teacher in his work. Perhaps teaching has not yet reached a professional status sufficient to give both the teacher and the teaching profession the respect that it deserves. Greater parental confidence in the teacher would, undoubtedly, solve many a difficult situation before it arises.

This chapter begins with an emphasis on the fundamental purpose for which good schools exist, namely, instruction. It seeks to give the teacher proper perspective in that process, and it presents some of the problems and issues which interfere with good teaching. It seeks to analyze some of the public criticisms of teachers and the profession. The major contacts that the teacher makes with the home and community are then presented with suggestions for improving teacher-community relations. The teacher's position should be strengthened considerably if public education is to maintain an effective program. There should be a better community appreciation of teachers and teaching, and an honest, coordinated effort to solve problems interfering with this objective. Teachers should strive to understand parents, the community and its issues, and earnestly labor for the development of better parental understandings in the interest of child welfare. Only in this way will teaching become the leading profession it deserves to be.

EFFECTIVE TEACHING AND GOOD ADMINISTRATION

The focal point of efficient school administration should always be located nearest to the vital purposes for which the public school exists—namely, effective teaching—to the end that life may be made more wholesome for childhood. Hence, the public-school system should be so organized, administered, and supervised that effective teaching can and does take place at all times. Every function of good administration should be directed toward this process. Unfortunately, in many school systems this is not always the case. Where political considerations direct educational policies, or where incompetent educational leadership places emphasis on matters of little concern in good instruction, both the teachers and the boys and girls suffer.

The teacher's job is one which is concerned primarily with children. Boys and girls are living people, moving, breathing, expressing a personality, creating problems for adjustment, learning, and living. Although desks and chairs, books, equipment, school environment, and school costs are all essentials in this process, they are but the means used in order to bring about the outcomes of good teaching. Children *live within the school* several hours of the day, just as they live within the home and the community. To educate these children, to seek to assimilate them in and adjust them to that society in which childhood lives and moves, to unfold personalities, to aid desirable growth and development may be said to be the major part of the job of every teacher. He is in a strategic position to assist in fitting the child to live in a complicated society. But in order to do so the teacher must have a full and complete knowledge and understanding not only of each child but of the homes from which they come, their parents, and community living. Since he is in a strategic situation with respect to child development, many occasions arise in which the teacher, both as an individual and in his teaching position, becomes the focal point of attention from the home and the community. Many of these occasions emphasize a need for better understanding. Quite often they affect his efficiency as a teacher both favorably and adversely. Good administration should seek to create those desirable conditions in which better understandings may be brought about, so that more effective teaching can result in the interest of the whole child.

THE TEACHER AND HIS POSITION

At the outset, a distinction should be drawn between the teacher in his position and the teacher as a person. Many occasions arise in which

the teacher's position is the focal point of attention and interest without regard to any particular teacher.

APPOINTMENT

Legally, the appointment of teachers is the prerogative of the board of education. Usually, such appointments are made upon recommendation of the proper administrative officer, especially in larger school districts. Yet in a large number of smaller districts without direct administrative supervision, or even with it in some instances, the appointment of teachers is made directly by individual members of the board. In some rural areas, a member of a board may make the appointment personally without any means of professional selection or advice, the board merely confirming the appointment. Qualifications are set up which directly concern the teacher in that school or community. The teacher must be manageable. He must possess a good personality. Residence within the community is often emphasized, for the teacher is expected to pay taxes to the community. Rural areas may be prejudiced against the city-bred teacher. The teacher from the small town or rural community may find difficulty in obtaining or holding positions in urban or suburban areas. Spoils and favors are still passed around where teacher appointment is concerned. Beale has pointed out many other factors in the appointment of teachers which have become a community concern.¹

Undoubtedly, state certification of teachers has tended to remove many of these conditions in enforcing higher educational and personal standards. There is also an increasing tendency to give administrative officers a share in selection by having them prepare a list to be submitted to the board from which final selection can be made.

ATTITUDES

Certain citizens of a community make the political affiliations of teachers of direct concern to themselves. To belong to one or another party may occasionally become a serious obstacle both to appointment and to subsequent tenure. Usually those holding radical views are barred from appointment. Teachers are increasingly declaring themselves independent as to political party choices.

Religious tests are still often applied to teachers both at the time of appointment and during incumbency. The attitudes assumed by teachers in regard to racial questions, community issues, and various community projects and activities are made the concern of many people. Although

¹ Howard K. Beale, *Are American Teachers Free?* (Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936), Chap. XVII.

the teacher should realize that, at all times, he is a teacher of truth, there is no reason why he cannot participate in community affairs and public issues. To do otherwise is to deny the democratic principles which he must uphold and teach his pupils.

LOCAL RESIDENTS AS TEACHERS

Professionally, the position should seek the person. In those districts where an examination system of selection has been set up and eligibility lists based on merit are prepared, there is an approach to this ideal. Unfortunately, the number of such districts is not large. There is strong pressure in many, if not most, communities to place the hometown resident in the teaching position. The returning college graduate may expect, through his father's or some board member's influence, to find placement when the next vacancy occurs. Indeed, good teachers have been forced out to provide such a vacancy. Former teachers, failing in other lines of employment, have looked to the public school as offering legitimate positions for their own occupational needs without regard to the welfare of the children or the express recommendations of the superintendent. Where the welfare of the children is taken into primary consideration in such cases, the best teachers are employed, regardless of residence. The selection of teachers should become entirely a professional matter.

THE MARRIED WOMAN TEACHER

In some communities, the problem of the married woman teacher has reached embarrassing proportions owing to tenure of teachers, aversion to married women teachers as such, the feeling that the place of the married woman is in the home, and the competition of younger, unmarried women. The American people should realize that the education of American youth is largely in the hands of women. There are six women teachers to every man teacher in the public schools, with the proportion in the elementary schools much greater. Most of these women are unmarried. Thus many women teachers remain spinsters because they must often choose between marriage and continuing to teach. The fact of spinsterhood educating the youth of our country may be a factor in the nation's conditioning. Perhaps youth needs the teacher with a better understanding of home and family living.

Studies of the relative efficiency of the married versus the spinster teacher have indicated little difference between them. Where a teacher does her job well, the emphasis should be placed upon her continued teaching efficiency without regard to her marital status. This would apply equally to the man or woman. The solution of the problem, then, seems

to be in acquainting the members of the board and the community with the facts in the case and, at the same time, overcoming deep-seated prejudices. Fortunately, more and more good women teachers are being retained upon marriage.

TEACHERS' SALARIES

The average annual teacher's salary in the United States is about \$2800, certainly not a very large sum and far below that paid to many other professional classes and most skilled and unskilled workers. When it is noted that average teachers' salaries range from about \$1300 in Mississippi to \$3800 in California, the significance of low salaries for professional service is all the more apparent. Districts willing to let teachers go to better-paying positions because of an unwillingness to retain them for a slight increase in salary give some indication of a lack of consideration for the important problem of attracting and holding the best teachers available and paying them for services rendered.

Perhaps the fault lies in a misconception of the importance of education; perhaps in the failure of education to give value received; perhaps no attempt has been made through a desirable school-community relations program to set before the community the worth of a good teacher in the interests of child growth and development. But it must be remembered that educational values are usually delayed values, and that teacher worth may not be immediately perceived; hence the need for better understanding of the value of good teachers and good teaching, and of their usefulness in community living.

TENURE

As long as dismissal faces a teacher for one cause or another, how can he perform his work well? The unfit teacher should, of course, be removed, but the good teacher should enjoy a measure of security so that his work as a teacher can be done well, without fear or favor. Many of the states have passed laws guaranteeing teachers some measure of security in their positions. These laws vary in many particulars—from removal only for specified cause to indefinite tenure and other less secure forms in other states. Many court decisions which have resulted from cases of dismissal have impaired the teacher's security through tenure as much as they have strengthened it.

Probably no aspect of a teacher's position has been subjected to as much public discussion as tenure. Superintendents often oppose it because of a feeling that they thereby lose a measure of control over the teachers. School boards object for this reason and because of the fear of

retaining the lazy, incompetent, or indifferent teacher, because of a desire to place local residents or favorites at lower salaries, because of a desire to balance a salary budget by bringing in a few new teachers at beginning salaries, but probably most because they resent intrusion in the traditional method of electing teachers annually with its corresponding controls.

The unsavory publicity which usually attends trials during which charges are brought against teachers, whether before school boards or the courts, is unfortunate for teacher and community alike. These charges run the gamut of incompetency, immorality, negligence, cruelty, subversive activities, or violations of the school law or regulations of the board. Naturally, the evidence which must be submitted involves witnesses within both school and community. Citizens take sides. School officials are "put on the spot." The newspapers present the "news" in broad headlines. As a result, the teacher's usefulness, whether the charges are proved or not, is impaired, and the community remembers the unfortunate affair for many years.

The interest of the educational public in attracting and holding the best teachers should be the principal criterion for decision in this matter. Greater understanding is needed in emphasizing as a community problem the relationship of security and good teaching.

THE TEACHER'S PROFESSIONAL STATUS

PREPARATION

Emphasis upon the selection of better-prepared teachers on the part of the community is usually in direct relation to the level of community culture and the value placed upon education itself. Unfortunately, in most school districts there are groups which vary in their insistence upon good education and well-prepared teachers in every classroom. The development of a truly professional teaching corps demands energetic educational leadership, but the leaders must be assisted in carrying out this policy through the encouragement and active assistance of all citizens. Where this is not entirely possible, those community groups and individuals with higher educational ideals should actively campaign for this end.

GROWTH IN SERVICE

Keeping abreast educationally in a changing world involves more than the selection of well prepared teachers. They must be kept growing in service. Community individuals and groups can participate in keeping

teachers growing in their professional life. Such incentive can be supplied through the salary schedules, board policies, the parent-teacher association, professional leadership, social and cultural activities, and professional encouragement.

PROFESSIONAL SELF-RESPECT

There are varying attitudes in communities in regard to the respect in which teachers are held as compared to members of other professions. In some localities, the male high school teacher is "professor" to all. The elementary teacher is similarly held in high regard. In others, quite the reverse is true. Perhaps in the last analysis, the community will hold the teacher in as high regard as he holds himself. In those communities where the teacher is not highly regarded, it might do him no harm to begin with improving his own self-respect.

Stability of the profession should make for a higher regard for the teacher in any community, especially where good teachers are retained and rewarded on merit. Tenure may point the way, as will good salaries. A feeling of belonging both in and out of the school will assist immeasurably. Teachers' associations are powerful forces, if properly directed, in developing morale and professional self-respect.

ACADEMIC FREEDOM

The issue of freedom in teaching seems to be a direct outgrowth of the social and economic transition through which we are passing. In this social change, education has played and must continue to play an important part. Indeed, the fundamental principle of democracy is predicated upon the leadership of public education. Consequently, the fundamental concepts of freedom of speech, inquiry, discussion, and criticism, and of teaching as truth-seeking must be maintained for democracy's own preservation.

Controversial issues necessarily accompany social transition. The static forces resist those of social change. The public school is the logical place where young people can and should study and discuss intelligently these controversial issues. Not only to learn the facts intelligently, but to discuss them dispassionately under wise guidance is most essential.

Upon the teacher then rests the primary responsibility for the maintenance of the freedom of teaching, especially since he is in a strategic position to do so. He must realize his position and his authority, recognizing the maturation level of the child, his ethnic or social background, the nature and purpose of education, and the limiting factors in local situations. The truth should be spoken and defended as a constitutional right.

Moreover, issues should be understood and their relative importance stressed. Administrative leaders, board members, and community groups will do well if they protect the teacher in these rights and privileges to the end that democratic principles be maintained.

'TEACHERS' UNIONS

Although the right of the teacher to ally himself with professional organizations has been maintained, unquestionably the ethics of teachers' maintaining any association with labor unions or similar organizations is an issue which has aroused heated discussions in many communities. Many teachers feel that they have been forced to join organizations affiliated with labor through failure of their own professional organizations or administrative leaders to champion their cause, or because of community pressure from the unions themselves. Moreover, unions point with pride to their achievements for teachers. The issue in this instance points definitely to the need for strengthened professional associations for teachers, especially since teaching is a profession. Professional associations of other groups have demonstrated capacity for strong leadership and cooperative action.

THE TEACHER AND HIS WORK

DISCIPLINARY RELATIONSHIPS

Discipline has been described as the power exercised by the teacher to secure the desired end of teaching. Where it is exercised through external demands, it may be called discipline. Where the child reacts because of the natural operation of internal direction and compliance, it may be termed control. The nature of a teacher's control over his class is more often a reflection of community attitude. Many occasions arise in which there is a conflict between a teacher's conception of the nature of control or his failure to achieve it and the parental conception of it. The law protects the teacher in its exercise, excepting of course where it is abused. Wise control seeks always to provide intelligent self-direction in the developing citizen. Wise teachers will also seek to resolve any disciplinary conflicts with parents, in the interests of the pupil's welfare.

THE TEACHER'S LOAD

Many persons in a community feel that teachers have easy work. This they judge by short hours, long vacations, and the absence of physical labor. Teachers who do not take their work seriously and find time to idle

away many hours in public places do much to foster such erroneous attitudes on the part of the public.

However, the public is not generally aware of the real work of the teacher and the burden of responsibility which he is called upon to carry. Especially during the past two decades have the duties of the teacher increased, in many localities through larger pupil loads and increased extra-curricular and administrative responsibilities. Where the teacher or principal is called upon to assume both membership and leadership in many community organizations and affairs, the load may assume the proportions of a burden.

Although teaching is still a part-time position, lasting only nine months of the year, there is a tendency toward full-time employment in some communities through summer employment for teaching, supervising recreation, camp work, and similar activities. The community should be generally informed of the real nature of the teacher's work and the burden of responsibility which he carries. Moreover, the teacher, on his part, should assume a proportional share of community responsibility in order



TEACHER ACTIVITIES IN SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

to bring about social understandings within the community as they relate to education. The responsibility would seem to be reciprocal.

THE TEACHER'S HEALTH

Good health, which is essential to efficiency in any work, is particularly important for teachers. This is true not only because good health lies at the foundation of every educational program but because of the strenuous demands which the classroom and extracurricular and social activities of the school and the community make upon the teacher's vitality. The health of the teacher is far more than an individual problem. It is reflected in the health and attitudes of the children. It is reflected in the homes, in his personality as he meets people and comes in contact with people both within and without the school. Indeed his ultimate success is usually a direct result of his physical fitness to teach.²

The health problems of the teacher are both school and community problems. Although personal health problems can and should be corrected by the teacher himself, the community influences them by the provision it makes for recreation, spiritual health, mental health, proper school environment, home life, and teacher activities within the community. Factors which make for better health of the teacher and which the community can provide or insist upon are: better living conditions for its teachers, provision for recreational services, leaves of absence, security of position, retirement, health examinations, medical and nursing services where needed, and a spirit of mutual cooperation and esteem.

THE TEACHER AS A PERSON

Men and women in public positions naturally live much in the public eye. This is especially true of teachers because they come in contact with the parents' most cherished possession - the child. More seems to be expected of teachers than of members of other professions.

THE TEACHER'S PERSONAL LIFE

In some communities what the teacher does and says outside of school is usually of more public concern than what he says and does within the school. Especially in smaller communities is there an expectation that he will conform to the particular social pattern. In larger communities his personal life is usually hidden from the school's view.

The conduct of teachers becomes a community problem, then, in those

² See William A. Yeager, *Administration and the Pupil* (Harper and Brothers, 1949), p. 278, for a discussion of the problems of teacher health.

localities where he is personally known. Mention has been made of his religious life and attitudes. Communities still differ as to the propriety of card playing and dancing. Some teachers are forbidden to smoke in public. Drinking is in most instances forbidden. In fact, many state laws make intemperance a cause for teacher dismissal. A teacher's relations with the opposite sex occasion much comment, especially if his partner be another teacher, a pupil of the school, or a person of questionable habits. Sexual delinquency, or what is commonly believed to be such, gives rise to gossip which usually leads to prompt dismissal. Some hold that even the suspicion of immorality renders a teacher unfit for service. Marriage, especially of women teachers, is a matter of public concern. Divorce is often fatal to a teacher's usefulness. Pregnancy and childbirth have created issues quite adverse to the teacher. School boards and superintendents often specify where a teacher shall room or board. A teacher may become a target for gossip on slight pretexts whether or not her conduct merits it. How the woman teacher dresses, how she combs her hair, the length of her skirts, the style of her hat, her use of cosmetics, the sheeriness of her stockings, all are important matters of public concern. Where she spends her week ends concerns some people. Men are probably less liable to community gossip in this respect. However, any unconventionality is taboo.

Diverging social and economic forces are at work in regard to the community's interest in and criticism of the teacher's personal life. A sense of responsibility on the part of the teacher in the interest of each child ought to be a basis for guidance. On the community's part, the "dictator" or gossip ought to be ready to accept as his own the standard of conduct which he so willingly places on others. Prejudice should be overcome with intelligence well salted with forbearance.

In 1950, postal authorities and the FBI were called upon to investigate a nationwide letter campaign to persuade girls in teacher training institutions to give up their planned careers. This investigation, requested by the National Education Association, disclosed that scurrilous remarks against teachers were being circulated in which such terms as "old maid factories," "lost women," "matrimonial blind alley," and the like were applied to teachers and teaching. Such techniques are capable of irreparable harm. Teaching is an honorable profession and is entitled to the support of every citizen. Where the leadership in developing this support does not arise out of the community, the teaching profession must supply it.

THE TEACHER AND COMMUNITY LIVING

In many localities, a teacher is expected to become a citizen of the community. Perhaps the selection of the hometown girl is as much based

on this thought as is her lower economic cost to the district. Participation in such community activities as the church, the clubs, the social life is a part of the picture. Moreover, the teacher is often called upon to lead the Scouts or the Camp Fire Girls, teach a Sunday School class, or lead other activities. Perhaps these things are desirable.

Local businessmen insist on patronage of home stores and shops, especially in smaller communities. It is important that the teacher give due heed to his financial affairs. A law suit is bound to react unfavorably. To pay one's debts, to live within one's means, to live economically, all are desirable. Many a teacher has lost his effectiveness and perhaps his position by failure to pay proper attention to his own business affairs.

All of these things point to the necessity for an adequate standard of living for all teachers, based upon a salary commensurate with the position and service rendered. Many communities may have to be educated to the need for such a standard. The teacher should become an integral part of every community, but this does not mean that he is bound by it. If education means the bringing about of desirable changes and adjustments, then the teacher should become a leader in that direction.

RELIGION

The religious life and beliefs of the teacher are of paramount concern, especially in smaller communities. Religious intolerance, one of society's strongest forces, makes itself felt in the selection of teachers and in other manifestations of control over the teaching force. Beale states that many Protestant teachers assert that, in some cities, Catholic, Jewish, and agnostic influence is so great that no freedom remains to the teacher to instill even the most general ethical and moral principles.³ A teacher of one faith may be dismissed to make room for one of another faith. State laws, both mandatory and prohibitive, modify the teacher's religious influence. In one state Bible reading is required; in another it is prohibited.

The problems of religion in the teacher's work, then, usually center around what the teacher himself believes and does as an individual, and what the teacher says or does in the line of teaching duty. The public schools, being public and open to all children, should be definitely non-sectarian; hence any religious test imposed on a teacher is incompatible. Since character forming is a major educational objective, teachers of high morals and ideals should be selected and retained without regard to any particular religious affiliation. On their part, teachers should not abuse the privilege of teaching in order to proselyte. In the classroom the facts of each daily lesson should be presented as truth without regard to creeds or pressures of religious or racial groups. Children are entitled to

³ Howard K. Beale, *op. cit.*, p. 208. Chap. IX is an excellent discussion of this question.

the truth and teachers should be fearless enough to present it. In this act, they should be amply supported by the board of education, their administrative officers, and the community in general.

SPIRITUAL VALUES

The constitutional guarantee of religious freedom has found expression in America in the establishment of more than 250 distinct denominational groups, each with its own creed, organization, and religious observances. Attempts to agree on those religious fundamentals which might be taught all children have not been successful wherever they have been attempted. Might it not be more appropriate to approach the problem educationally from the standpoint of the inculcation of those *spiritual values*⁴ necessary to round out the development of the *whole child*, in which both through precept and example, the teacher could teach and the pupils could practice through daily living, both in and out of school, such principles as good character, sharing, self-denial, generosity, loyalty, self-fulfillment, love, honesty, virtue, the development of good habits, justice, temperance, courage, and prudence? These have persisted through the ages and will for ages to come. Such an approach need not require curriculum adjustment, or an organization, or an elaborate administrative set-up; rather devoted, understanding teachers with high ideals and a spirit of service to all mankind.

THE TEACHER AND COMMUNITY ISSUES AND PRESSURES

Much has been said in this and earlier chapters concerning community issues and pressures. The teacher is concerned with these in many ways. Since the public school is necessary to the preservation of democratic principles, the teacher's position is strategic with respect to them.

PATRIOTISM

We have noted that teachers are required to take loyalty oaths in many states. Although there can be nothing amiss in requiring a teacher to agree to subscribe to the constitution and the laws of a state, it is in the implication of such an oath that difficulties may arise.

The public schools are expected to teach patriotism, but patriotism to one super-patriotic organization may mean one thing, to other patriotic

⁴ John S. Brubacher, *The Public Schools and Spiritual Values* (Harper and Brothers, 1944). See also National Education Association *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools*, Educational Policies Commission, 1951.

organizations quite another. State laws define the nature of patriotic teaching. The administration of required flag salutes to noncomplying children who are so directed by their parents is a problem of serious importance, especially where penalties are inflicted on teachers who fail to comply.

ISSUES

National issues such as war, communism, peace, international relations, and social questions create problems for the teachers. In local issues centering around labor, politics, the liquor question, regulation of business and industry, the teacher, either by force or through choice, may take sides or express opinions. The problem is definitely related to academic freedom.

DIRECT PRESSURES

In a similar manner, pressure groups seek to exert that pressure directly on the teacher and on the classroom itself. Within the school may be found those pressures which lead to some form of administrative control short of but implying the threat of dismissal. Leadership of principals and superintendents may vary from fear and repression to benign complacency. The effects of favoritism are felt by many teachers. Parental attitudes towards discipline create problems for the teacher's control. School boards have great power over teachers by means of rules and regulations, suggestions, and threats. Quite often the board's attitude is definitely reflected in some external pressure directed at them individually or as a board. Teachers themselves can make another teacher's life happy or miserable; the latter all too often is the case.

Outside the school many other organizations seek to influence the public-school program and those who teach it. Many are well meaning; others definitely selfish. The public press can become a source of much good for public education, but it can also create havoc when a campaign is carried on against the school, the superintendent, or the teacher. Half truths, misstatements, or even truths are publicized out of all proportion to the facts in the case, with resulting embarrassment to the school.

The teacher is influenced by many of these pressures indirectly, it is true, but quite often directly. The teacher should be free and brave enough to seek the truth and teach it all times. This would appear to be the only conclusion to reach. The maintenance of desirable understandings in such matters is one of the principal purposes of programs of school-community relations.

TEACHER APPRECIATION

Teachers are in reality public servants; yet there should not be an exaggerated emphasis on the *servant* part of the phrase. Many teachers resent bitterly the restrictions and inhibitions placed upon them by society because they are teachers. They resent being "social share croppers" getting just enough social return to keep them alive after tilling the educational soil for years. Teachers do want to teach and take a part, a proper part, in the community life; this part should be generous. Although the rewards of teaching are inevitably delayed, perhaps a generation, why not realize some of them now so that a better democratic society may result? Why not bring about a more generous appreciation of teachers? Kindness has long arms. Yet as far as the teacher is concerned, his faith in himself and his work ought to be one of the best approaches in order to create that spark in youth so necessary to vital living.

TEACHER CONFLICTS

Many of the problems in school-community relations arise directly or indirectly out of conflicts of various sorts. Many of these have their origin within the school, but their ramifications extend over into the home and the community. A few of these will be examined.

TEACHER VS. TEACHER

Teachers, being human, find it difficult at times to get along harmoniously with one another. Little jealousies arise over such matters as the teaching schedule, preferred classrooms, preferred activities, bids for favor, professional jealousies, and achievement of pupils. Teachers are quick to blame one another for work poorly done, poor discipline, or a poor distribution of responsibility. A quarreling faculty does no credit to a school system. A realization on the part of all teachers of the dignity of the teaching profession is the first step in adjusting teacher teacher difficulties. Administrative leadership of a higher order is most essential. The confidence that teachers enjoy among parents and in the community ought to be a sobering influence in this respect, perhaps no more so than increased responsibility for their own acts as teachers.

TEACHER VS. ADMINISTRATION

Just as some parents wonder what teachers do with their time, so do some teachers wonder about their principals and other administrative officers. Teachers resent unbalanced schedules and preferences of some

principals for some teachers. Teachers' professional associations and unions have given teachers a confidence often mistaken for "cocksureness" when they make excessive demands on the administration and the board of education. Perhaps the chief cause of teacher-principal conflict is the development and enforcement of school policies arrived at without democratic procedures.

TEACHER VS. PARENT

Conflicts with parents grow out largely of teacher-pupil conflicts within the school. Many of these are distressing, often amounting to major crises. Yauch⁵ expresses causal factors in this regard as follows: (1) many parents look upon teachers as different from normal human beings; (2) many teachers view parents as exercising undue control over professional activities; (3) unmarried teachers do not have the same points of view toward children as parents have; (4) parents use their own school experiences as measures of their children's educational program; (5) teachers' and parents' points of view on child development differ because of their training; (6) teachers and parents have not yet accepted the child's education as a joint responsibility and do not take a joint interest in his welfare.

It is obvious that a constructive program in resolving conflicts is an essential part of a school-community relations program. Many of these conflicts arise out of the frailties of human nature and of misunderstandings and lack of appreciation of one another's viewpoints. The cooperative principle of mutual understanding and trust in the light of complete information will do much to dissipate conflict.

MEANS FOR DEVELOPING BETTER RELATIONS BETWEEN TEACHERS AND COMMUNITY

The teaching staff is directly concerned with many agencies and activities useful in establishing better school-community relations. When these instruments are adopted by the administration as a part of school policy, their successful use depends upon the interest and cooperation of the teaching staff, principals, and supervisors. In each of these activities the pupil plays a highly important role. His welfare, progress, and educational growth assume a central position. This is as it should be; the progress of the pupil must always be kept in mind in the administration of these activities.

⁵ Willbur A. Yauch, *Improving Human Relations in School Administration* (Harper and Brothers, 1919), pp. 216-217.

REPORTING PUPIL PROGRESS

The Report Card. The time-honored report card purposing to report the school progress of the pupil to the parent has long been in use in the public schools. As commonly administered, it is a form upon which is *copied* a record of the grades or marks achieved by the pupil during each report period. An adequate grade or mark appears to be necessary to record the administrative "progress" of the child through the grades or the curriculum. Through symbols, letters, or figures, the parent is informed how the pupil is "doing at school." Promotion depends upon achievement in terms of a passing grade, as an average of a year's or semester's work. The pupil's failure to achieve the passing grade indicates to the parent that the pupil may need to repeat the grade or subject. Failure sets up in the pupil as well as the parent an emotional conflict which may have far-reaching results.



LIFE CYCLE OF A REPORT-CARD STUFFER

In addition to subject or grade progress, most report cards include records of the pupil's attendance, absence or tardiness, and deportment, now commonly designated as citizenship. More recently, there has been much experimentation in reporting progress through an analysis of character traits with suggestions for improvement.

Shortcomings of the Report Card as a Home Contact. Much parental dissatisfaction has been expressed over the formal report card. There is a lack of understanding, often amounting to a misunderstanding, as to the meaning of grades or symbols. Frequently, this has set up a conflict between pupil and parent, pupil and teacher, and parent and school. In many instances, especially with older children, the parent makes no effort to ascertain the causes of irregularity or nonprogress in subject matter, or in attendance. The teacher may not be aware of home conditions or attitudes which may have caused school difficulties, nor does he usually make earnest efforts to become adequately informed. Making out report cards for the teacher may become a perfunctory matter in which the child is lost but the system saved.

Most administrators and teachers would probably admit with reluctance that the grades or marks reported to parents upon report cards are in reality intended for promotion and other administrative school uses, and that *the parent receives merely a copy*. If true, this appears to be a strong indictment. The claim is made, however, that both the child and the parent, as well as the school, suffer through the usual report-card pattern. Eugene R. Smith is quoted as saying: "Of all the unethical treatment to which we subject children, marking them is the worst."⁶

Attitudes of children in regard to marks are reflected in parental attitudes. Ambitious parents anxious for a child's school progress usually have no other means of ascertaining the facts of this progress except through the report. Statements of the child are accepted and his alibis cherished. Too often, teachers assume an attitude of defense, which only serves to irritate further a bruised pride. With the parent whose child is "doing well," there may be no relations problem, but the parent whose child is "out of gear" with the administrative machinery quite often feels irritation and resentment which may later be reflected in outright opposition to the teacher and the school itself, especially if long continued.

Suggested Helps in Reporting to the Home. Improvements in home reporting have taken the following forms: (1) improvements in the traditional report card, (2) messages to the home, and (3) personal conferences. Although the traditional report card as commonly used does not

⁶ Quoted in Stanwood Cobb, *The New Leaven* (John Day Co., 1928), p. 199. The reader will find in Chap. X, "The Tyranny of Marks," a stimulating discussion.

fit adequately into any educational program having in mind the development of the whole child, it is obvious that this instrument will be with us a long time, owing to relative ease of administration, mass education, and the current philosophy of many teachers and administrative leadership. However, its points of weakness can and should be strengthened. The positive approach should be emphasized at all times. Information reported should be objectively arrived at. The report should represent all the factors, as far as possible, concerned in the child's progress. Reporting should be made more descriptive and understandable. Closer relationship should be maintained between pupils' achievement and the school's objectives. Personal and emotional factors on the part of both parents and teachers should be removed. Written reports should be accompanied by personal contacts wherever possible.⁷

Supplementing the traditional report card or substituting for it is the growing practice of communicating with the parent through individual messages. These may be written in the form of letters by the teacher or principal, sometimes prepared in cooperation with the pupil. They may be written or oral, and they are always individual and diagnostic in character. The tone is positive, helpful, and progressive.

There is an increasing emphasis on reporting to parents through personal conferences, teacher visitations in the home, and visiting days for parents in the schools. Some teachers are experimenting with a personal delivery of all report cards to the home, making the occasion a conference of mutual help and interest. Home conditions can be studied. The point of emphasis is to develop greater teacher-parent cooperation in the interest of pupil growth and development.

Apart from improvement in reporting as a school responsibility, the following should be emphasized from the standpoint of the home. The report system should (1) promote understanding and good will; (2) state simply and clearly the school's philosophy and objectives; (3) assist in adjusting home and community living with school subjects; (4) provide adequate understanding of standards of work accomplished for its own sake rather than for marks or rewards; (5) be understandable to the child himself and promote understanding with his parents; (6) indicate measures of individual and social growth and development. Such principles as these in home reporting are necessary if education is to be conceived in its cooperative relationships.

HOME AND SCHOOL VISITATION AND CONFERENCES

Bringing Parent and Teacher Together. Many agencies and devices

⁷ A discussion of reports to the home will be found in Yeager, *op cit.*, pp. 342-349.

are available to bring the parent and the teacher together. Among these are home visitation on the part of the teacher; school visitation on the part of the parent; conferences such as those provided by parent-teacher associations; conferences in connection with planned school affairs, such as exhibits and demonstrations; and the visiting teacher. Reeder⁸ believes that "there is no more effective way of making a community acquainted with the school than through visiting it." Consequently, any plan developed under school auspices which brings the parents and citizens *into the school* under favorable circumstances would appear to be justifiable.

Home Visitation. It is just as important for the teacher to know the parents and the home environment, the economic, social, and moral level, as it is desirable for the parent to understand the school, its purposes, and its program. If it were possible for each teacher to behold each pupil in relation to his home and community environment, better understanding of the pupil would come about.

Any procedure that brings the teacher, the parent, and the home together under desirable conditions should contribute to this end. Formerly, when teachers "boarded around," they had an excellent opportunity to know home conditions. In those small communities where everyone knows everyone else, the problem of getting better acquainted is not so difficult, unless the teacher is an itinerant. In larger school systems, however, teachers, especially those with large classes, find it difficult to make home contacts. Children come from widely separated districts, especially when transported. Their home conditions are frequently such that they are ashamed to have teachers visit them. Language difficulties arise. Bad initial attitudes condition any conference before it begins. Quite often the teacher lacks tact or has no conception of the technique of an interview.

Techniques for Home Visitation. Preparation for home visitation on the part of teachers is necessary for best results. Barriers such as the following should be removed: (1) some teachers lack personality and social understandings in dealing with parents; (2) cultural, religious, language, and racial consideration must be reckoned with; and (3) many parents are suspicious of the motives of teachers and may resent what seems to them to be an intrusion. As to the visit itself the following suggestions will be found helpful:

1. The approach to home visitation should begin with the removal of all possible barriers to a satisfactory visit.
2. Before going into any home, the teacher should study the child concerned, having in mind as many first-hand facts as possible.

⁸ W. G. Reeder, *An Introduction to Public School Relations*, p. 160. He has included an excellent discussion of school visitations, pp. 160-161.

3. The techniques of interviewing should be studied carefully.
4. The approach to the parent should always be positive. Find something good to say about each child. Matters requiring adjustment should be approached tactfully. Friendliness should characterize every visit. Offer to work together to remove any conflict if it exists.
5. Ascertain as many facts about the child in the home environment as possible—health, the family, home interests, and economic conditions.
6. Since every child is an individual child, each case ought to be studied and reported as a "case study."
7. A record should be kept of all visits in terms of the purpose for which the visit was made.
8. In difficult cases the teacher will do well to work carefully with probation officers, community organizations, the family minister and physician, recreational personnel, and others who may assist in any way. Where a visiting teacher is employed, a close relationship with the classroom teacher should be developed.
9. The end result of home visitations should be to help the teacher to better understand and better deal with the pupil, for this knowledge of home life can serve as a background in the interpretation of school life.

The Visiting Teacher. Teachers as a group have not taken kindly to administrative requirements that the homes of all children be visited one or more times during a semester or a year. Too often such visitation has taken a negative turn, an approach of complaint to the parent. Long school days, long distances from the school, a heavy work schedule, and scattered nature of some communities make the problem more difficult and the prospect less desirable.

The visiting-teacher movement began in 1906 in the East, largely under private auspices. It spread rapidly to the western cities. Developed in part to overcome the difficulties indicated in the preceding paragraph, and in part to solve the problems of the unadjusted child, the movement has spread to include problems associated with school attendance, behavior, school failures, vocational interests, and difficulties arising out of emotional instability. States are recognizing the special training required for such a teacher by making provision for special certification. Wherever possible it is desirable that this movement should be encouraged and teachers trained for the work. The attendance service itself should be in charge of properly prepared persons, competent to make those educational and social adjustments with the home.⁹

School Visitation. Teachers are quite familiar with the fact that usually those parents visit the school whose children are making satisfactory progress, and who, ambitious for their further progress, desire better school

⁹ For a more detailed discussion of the visiting-teacher movement, see Yeager, *op. cit.*, pp. 78-82.

relationships in the interest of their children. Many parents, however, come to the public school only when the child is in some form of difficulty, such as low achievement, disciplinary infractions, or truancy. Conferences under these conditions are naturally strained and distressing, both principal or teacher and parent feeling somewhat on the defensive. Usually, if the teacher uses tact and the parent genuinely desires to understand and remedy the difficulty, a better understanding is brought about in the interest of the child.

Teachers do not always realize that they are dealing with the parents' most cherished possession, perhaps an only child. Important emotional disturbances, such as those incident to adolescence and others well known to psychologists, may be taking place within the mind of the child. The parent may be inimical to the school and to education generally, perhaps nursing an old grudge, or owing a year's school taxes. Social barriers bring about a feeling of aloofness. So many similar situations condition parent-teacher conferences that it is important to study each problem carefully.

School visitation would appear to be of two types. First are those informal visits by parents at any time during the daily sessions, in which the work of the school can be observed under routine circumstances. Although many teachers object to these visits on the ground that the work is interrupted, teachers with the work of the classroom well in hand usually sense in such visitation opportunities for better home-school contacts lost sight of by less resourceful teachers. Satisfied and interested parental observers thus become "salesmen" for the educational enterprise, a fact often overlooked. The second type includes school visitation upon invitation by school authorities to such affairs as school demonstrations, school exhibits, special day or evening sessions, and special events. Evening sessions of regular school activities are coming into popular use. Exhibitions of school work in connection with special visiting days or weeks has long been popular. The school work is thus visualized and the educational purposes clarified. Parents are often amazed at the scope and quality of the educational program. Naturally they want to see what their own children are accomplishing. They can be invited to assist with publicity materials or refreshments. Pupils can be trained to assist as ushers and guides, a situation which will please the parents. They can write letters to their parents urging them to visit the school, and when they come point out their own accomplishments.

School Exhibits. Occasionally exhibits are held in various places other than the school building, as in store windows, at the county fair, or on traveling automobiles. Visits may be made with school materials to the

Rotary or other service clubs, the civic club, or other community organizations.

The following suggestions are offered in connection with school exhibits in a school-community program:

1. The purposes of the school exhibit should be in harmony with the school's educational objectives. It should be meaningful and the outcomes sought should be reasonably attainable and understood by all.

2. The exhibit should be adapted to the everyday work of the school, the work so arranged as to show the progressive development of school work as a whole and educational growth of each individual pupil. It should show the results of projects in which groups of children have participated.

3. The exhibits should be so arranged as to inspire community confidence in the school program and its activities. They should be conspicuously labeled with captions and explanatory notes in simple language.

4. A logical and co-ordinated arrangement of individual rooms, departments, or buildings should be made by some directing head such as the principal or committee of teachers in which individuality, cooperation, and the work of each pupil stands out clearly. Friendly competition among teachers should be wholesome. Any form of prize or banner as the "best" award should be discouraged, since certain grades or subjects may be better adapted for exhibition purposes than others.

5. Skill in arrangement and artistry in design should characterize the whole exhibit.

6. Since it would appear that better understandings are basic to school exhibitions in which parents, teachers, and community individuals and groups are brought together, every opportunity should be provided which will contribute to this end. This means that teachers and other school personnel should be conspicuous by their presence and availability.

Health Service and the School Nurse. Most educators consider good health as a primary objective of education. Yet, in many school systems, little attention is paid to good health either in theory or in practice. The board of health exercises certain legal controls over the public schools. Medical examinations of school children are required by law. In most schools the physicians engaged to examine school children limit this examination to a more or less perfunctory and superficial annual or biennial check-up lasting but a few minutes; in the far too few excellent school systems which take the health objective seriously and try to do something about it, the examination is a thorough one.

Closely associated with home visitation on the part of the teacher are those home relationships available through the health services of the school, and especially the school nurse. In some districts, the school nurse performs certain health examinations which come within her professional limitations. The dental hygienist performs similar professional activities.

The school nurse usually reports to the home the results of the examinations and in health problems relating to contagious diseases, correction of defects, preventive measures, and social maladjustments directly or indirectly related to physical health. A school nurse carefully trained for this work is able to correct many cases of social maladjustment due to health problems, and to return to the school and the teacher valuable information concerning the home and the child. The recognition, on the part of many states, of special types of certification for the school nurse and other health personnel is an indication of her value in better community living for children.

PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY AFFAIRS

Teachers make many contacts in the community through active participation in community organizations. Greenhoe¹⁰ found five categories of such activities: (1) religious, such as the church and its activities, young people's societies, and Y.M.C.A. or Y.W.C.A.; (2) professional, including clubs, alumni, and parent-teacher associations; (3) relief and welfare, including Red Cross, community chest, and relief agencies; (4) leisure pursuits, such as social clubs, dramatics, bridge, and musical organizations; and (5) civic, such as grange, service clubs, and community celebrations.

Teachers are often urged to become active in such organizations because of certain leadership abilities, or because of a sincere community desire to do something for teachers. Care must be taken that the purpose of teacher membership is mutually helpful and not burdensome. The teacher's abilities and endowments, such as organization and public speaking, ought to be made available for the common good, especially where community planning for better social living is the objective.

The new teacher, upon entering a community to teach, will be confronted by several opportunities to engage in community activity through its organizations. Perhaps his first contact will be to attend the church of his faith and participate in its various activities. Boys' and girls' organizations are always on the alert for strong leadership. This may lead to desirable and needed community service. Civic organizations are prominent in most communities, and invitations to attend and perhaps to join should be considered carefully. Naturally, a teacher's own inclinations are guides to right choices, but habitual excuses should be avoided unless one's health is a major factor or one's energies are already dissipated in too many directions.

¹⁰ Florence Greenhoe, "Teacher Participation in Community Life," *School Life*, 26:213-15 (April 1941).

There are many informal contacts made by teachers with parents and citizens generally in the course of daily living. It is well for teachers to remember at all times that they are professional people. Teachers are generally expected to set high standards of sound moral conduct. There may be some difference of opinion as to what constitutes good behavior. The community may approve of using rouge or lipstick, leaving town on week ends, or working outside of school hours, but may disapprove of dating with students, smoking in public, playing pool, drinking alcoholic liquors, not attending church, making political speeches, and running for political offices. Regardless of what teachers' feelings may be in regard to these matters, they cannot afford, especially in smaller communities, to irritate the sensibilities of the citizens and thereby impair their usefulness as teachers.

TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Professional organizations for the advancement of education exist in every state. Various known as state teachers' or state educational associations, and composed largely of teachers and others directly interested in the cause of education, they exercise a considerable influence on educational progress in the state and the preservation of gains made through the years. On the national level, the National Education Association is the parent body of many professional organizations. Affiliated with it are numerous organizations emphasizing specific educational interests. State educational organizations generally have local branches, designed to bring the activities of the parent organization closer to the teacher and his problem.

Much has been accomplished for the teacher and the teaching profession through professional organizations. Gains have been made in (1) improvement of educational conditions within the state and community; (2) dissemination of professional information; (3) development of a spirit of unity and understanding among teachers; (4) publicity for the profession; (5) opportunity for social development; (6) inspiration; (7) teacher welfare, in terms of salaries, insurance, retirement, and (8) a professional solidarity perhaps impossible to accomplish in any other way.¹¹

The individual teacher has a good opportunity for self-expression and participation in professional activities in the local teachers' association and for constructing policies which are made meaningful through local

¹¹ "Local Education Associations at Work," *Research Bulletin*, National Education Association, XXVI, No. 3 (Oct. 1948).

application. Teachers can thus exercise leadership. Opportunities are created for better understandings among teachers themselves both within their own school system and in surrounding areas. Working together for such common interests as retirement, tenure, and better salaries increases morale and happiness in belonging. Issues such as unionism can be faced squarely and debated openly. Research activities of state and local organizations provide information which is understandable to teachers and may be useful in a school-community relations program. Without doubt, the chief value in these activities is the development of the teacher's personality—the open mind, a sense of humor, friendliness, and mutual confidence.

The teacher must not overlook conventions of state and national associations. Professional journals are published monthly and distributed widely. Many other types of informative materials—curriculum materials, bulletins, leaflets, and documents of all kinds—are published. Many of these are designed for the lay public as well as teachers and should be made available as widely as possible in order to advance generally the cause of education.

CONCLUDING OBSERVATIONS

A good teacher seeks constantly to take advantage of opportunities to grow professionally as he teaches. Although the school itself may provide such opportunities, perhaps the greatest degree of growth is provided by the teacher through self-improvement.¹² Where study groups of teachers are concerned with such problems as curriculum improvement, community resources, reading problems of pupils, and school failures, many community contact opportunities are made available. Teacher participation in administration may include studies of school policies, attendance, reporting, activities, and staff improvement. Travel undoubtedly broadens the teacher. When a committee of teachers engages in a study of teachers' salaries, they begin to understand better financial limitations and community standards. Tenure for teachers encourages them to become permanent residents of the community. The community, in turn, should be encouraged to enable teachers to maintain a desirable standard of living through adequate salaries. There is some tendency to secure for teachers all-year employment through recreation, summer schools, camps, and other educational and social activities. As we lift the teaching profession, we will lift the community with it.

¹² Consult Charles F. Prall and C. Leslie Cushman, *Teacher Education In Service* (American Council on Education, 1944).

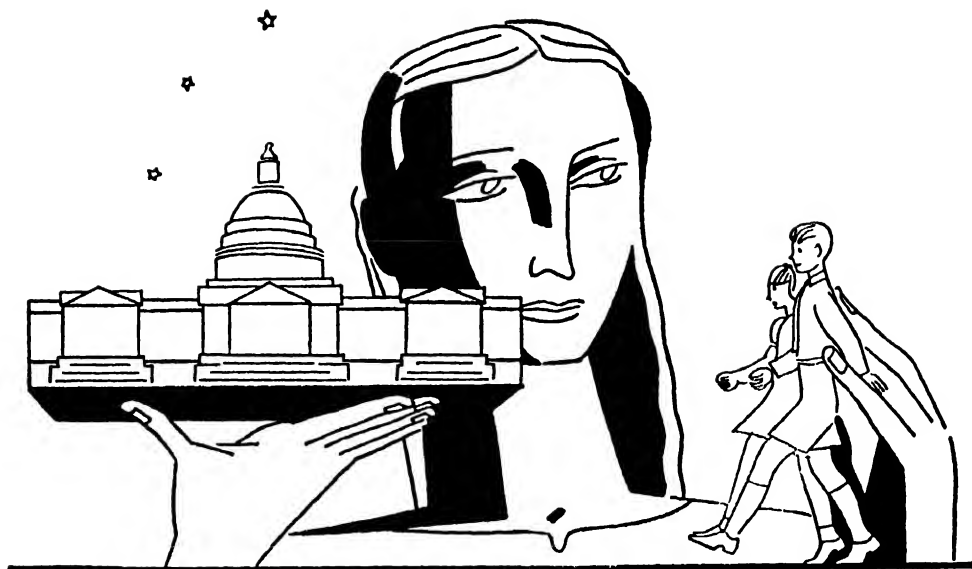
QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Comment on the statement that the teacher "is in a strategic position to assist the child to live in a complicated society."
2. Make a study of the teachers in your school district in order to ascertain influences in their appointment.
3. To what extent are the following issues present in your community: (1) religious tests for teachers; (2) employment of local talent as teachers; (3) employment of the married woman teacher; (4) teacher tenure; (5) academic freedom; (6) teachers' unions?
4. What can your community do to improve the teacher's health?
5. What is the attitude in your community toward the teacher's personal life?
6. What are some important values of the home organ for contacts with home and community?
7. What types of research materials should be disseminated to the public in rural areas? small towns? larger cities? What methods produce better understandings of this material?
8. Select what you believe to be the most potent agency for home-community relations for which the teacher may be considered primarily responsible.
9. What are some arguments in favor of, and objections to, the personal letter to parents as compared with the report card?
10. Why do many teachers object to home visitation? Compare visitation by the classroom teacher with that by a designated visiting teacher as to values and results.
11. Evaluate the suggestions offered for school exhibits.
12. Study a teachers' association (local branch) and report on its activities.
13. What are some of the chief factors in a program of building up teacher morale?
14. What advice would you give to a new teacher with respect to the community he is to serve?

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CHAPTER 9

The Pupils

JOHN BROWN PUSHED his chair back from the dinner table. "And now," he said, "let's call a family conference." It was the end of the first six weeks of school and the school reports had just been issued. "Well, Susan," he said, "did you make the Honor Roll?" Susan glowed with enthusiasm. "Yes," she said, "and I was elected to the National Honor Society." That called for an explanation. John remarked that he was glad to hear that the high school was emphasizing something other than athletics. John Junior's report was not so promising, except in social studies and science. He was ashamed of his English grade. Mother remarked that he would have to spend more time on his homework. Rose Marie's teacher had sent a letter home about her work. It did not record the usual letter grades. It said that Rose Marie was very cooperative and had a good attitude. She was really doing very well. Mrs. Brown smiled in satisfaction.

During the discussion the children related many things about their school life. They were not afraid to tell their parents, although Susan thought to herself that Daddy didn't always understand. She told about

her work on the school paper, the student council, and the Glee Club. She was proud of her part in the school play. However, Daddy didn't like the idea of kissing in the play. "That," he said, "was just silly." John Junior was interested in the school clubs, especially the Science Club. He had been playing football, too, and Mother didn't want him to play football, but Daddy said it might be a good thing if they enforced that rule about being "up in his lessons." By this time, Rose Marie had disappeared into the living room and was looking at Hopalong Cassidy on the television set.



Every pupil who attends a public school lives in a home and makes contact with some community groups in the community in which he lives. When one considers the possible number and variety of such contacts which the pupils of a given school can and do make as pupils, one can easily agree with many who believe that the pupil is the most important single instrumentality in school-community relations. The pupils reflects the attitudes of the members of his home, who in turn are influenced considerably by what he says and does. To this end, what the pupil is and thinks and does is of great concern in school-community relations. In many communities, the pupil is the only channel of communication between school and parents. It is natural to expect that the parents' chief interest in school is through his child. We need to give more thought to planning a program which will strengthen this daily contact between home and school through the pupil. The chapter will give consideration to those activities within the school in which the pupil plays a significant role as a member of a group.

THE PUPIL AS AN INDIVIDUAL

Perhaps the chief end of education is the development of rich and many-sided personalities, properly adjusted to happy and efficient social living. The term *personality* is generally used to indicate the organization and integration of a large number of human traits. An individual's personality is a complex of his physical appearance, his mental capacity, his emotional and social behavior patterns, his attitudes, and the manner in which he responds to the daily stimuli of his environment. Although he may inherit certain potentialities of personality development, much of what he is to become at any time in his life is the expression of learned patterns of behavior.

The pupil brings to the school a developing personality influenced by

the mores, traditions, religious attitudes of his home, and the personalities of his parents and other people. It is the *developing personality* with which the school is concerned. The school has an obligation to use the pupil's time for its proper development. Although indoctrination has its place, the pupil, being immature, must not be subjected to exploitation. Nor must the pupil be used as a propaganda agency to advance the interests of some pressure group, through the classroom, assembly, or any other activity. Excessive stimulation of children through athletics, contests, and the like to satisfy adult desires and obtain financial return is unworthy of those in charge of our youth.

There is no substitute for internal school morale and good will as a basis for desirable school-community relations. Teachers who get along with their pupils, both being happy in their relationships, provide a stimulating situation for all concerned. Pupils who feel that they belong, who like the school, the principal, the teachers, and the custodian, will constitute one of the most effective means for satisfactory home contacts.

It is through this approach then that the pupil takes his place as an individual in school-community relations. One of the main goals of the school, then, is the marshalling of its forces for the personality development of each pupil through his relationship with the home and in the community. Thoroughly conditioned, confident of his own strength, and sensing helpfulness in the school in meeting his problems, each child develops his personality, with the home an ally in this important endeavor.

CLASSROOM PROGRAM AND SCHOOL EXPERIENCES

The modern teacher reaches out into the community with his pupils in many ways through the classroom program. There are opportunities for pupils to study the home and community through assignments growing out of such subjects as citizenship classes, agricultural projects, commercial courses, and journalism. The history class studies the historical traditions, the monuments and points of interest, community anniversaries, the industries and commercial establishments, and special days and events. There may be occasional repair jobs for the school and the home in the shop classes and during the activity periods. The pupils of public-speaking classes participate in community events through dramatics and speeches. The science classes have an opportunity to study practical applications of science in the community's industries. Practical courses in safety and driver education teach safety on the city's streets. Consumer education offers possibilities limited only by the stores and shops.

PUPIL ACTIVITIES

Important as are those pupil experiences developed through the classroom, pupil activities are coming to have greater meaning to boys and girls as a means of self-expression. These activities are assuming greater significance in the larger educational program. In many instances they occupy more of the pupils' attention than they would seem to deserve. Many people judge the school almost entirely by these activities. For these reasons the activities of the school have come to play an important part in a school-community relations program. However, they should be clearly integrated in the total educational program and brought within the direct contact of the school authorities. Social values ascribed to them must be attuned to the larger purposes of the school's social program. In the section which follows, the most significant of these activities will be studied as they may be found useful in a school-community relations program.

STUDENT PUBLICATIONS

The field of public school journalism has made rapid progress, especially in the secondary school. Under the guidance of teachers trained in this field, through the constructive criticism and sponsorship of scholastic press associations and encouragement by principals and superintendents who sense their possibilities, school newspapers, more or less designated as student publications, are now found throughout the public schools on all levels from the elementary grades through the junior and senior high schools. In this development, there is definitely emerging a type of scholastic journalism which is the voice of the student and is interpretative of his needs, opinions, and activities. Through it the pupil himself, as the principal connecting link between the school and the home, may voice his acquired knowledge of and attitudes toward both of them and their meaning to him. Through this medium his attitudes, his hopes, and frustrations, all so real to him, together with the attitudes of parents, relatives, neighbors, and friends, and through them a portion of the community, may to a large extent, directly or indirectly, be influenced or modified. Although supervision is essential because of the immaturity of the pupils, this should not extend to censorship.

Student publications are a valuable means of enabling the pupil to express himself, form his opinions, present and receive needed information about the school, and through these means to create better understandings between the school, the home, and community. These publications usually include the school newspaper, the magazine, the yearbook

or annual, the handbook, and other miscellaneous student publications. Of these the school newspaper is more frequently in evidence. More often found in the high school, it is coming into prominent use in the elementary school, especially in mimeograph or other easily duplicated form. Admittedly, it is a student organ of expression. However, in order to fit more adequately into a school-community relations program, the purposes of the newspaper should be definitely related to what the pupil does, thinks, is interested in, and supports or should support. If a proper feeling of "belonging" has been built up in the school under wise administrative control, the function of the staff sponsor will be one of wise and sympathetic guidance, rather than censorship and suppression. Whatever of the latter is necessary can be achieved through appeals to the pride and self-respect of the newspaper staff and the student body. Although many of these publications may find their way into the home to be read by the parent, pupil attitudes and opinions directed through the publications and conveyed to the home are of great importance.

Although student publications are designed primarily for the interest of pupils, studies¹ have shown that parents are interested in news stories, personals, athletics, alumni news, and class news. They seem to have little interest in literary attempts and humor and to prefer individual items about their own children in yearbooks, news about graduates, and stories about the classes in which their own children belong. Club activities and pictures are of most interest to parents.

Most high schools of any size publish a students' handbook, usually prepared by the pupils themselves under guidance. Many items are of interest to parents. The local newspapers in some communities apportion a page for the publication of school news. Excellent practice in journalism is available where pupils participate in this endeavor. If the information is well selected, edited, and illustrated, it is valuable in a school community relations program. Pupils' publications and news releases can be an outcome of classes in journalism and club activities.

For better school-community relations, the following principles and policies are offered in regard to student publications:

1. Student publications should be designed to conform to the place and function of the public school in a democracy, to inform properly concerning the school's program, and to build up desirable student body opinion to the end that more desirable school-community relations may exist.
2. Student publications should be designed primarily by and for students, expressing *all* activities of the school and *all* points of view.

¹ Jessie M. Starkey, *Student Publications as an Aspect of a Public School Relations Program* (M. A. Thesis, University of Pittsburgh, 1936).

3. Commercialized material has no place in them. The use of advertising for underwriting all, or a part of the cost, is open to serious question.

4. Censorship and suppression should be replaced by wise and tactful sponsorship by the staff and student body itself.

5. The determination of types of publications and frequency of issues will depend upon size, type, needs, and traditions of school, school policies, and funds available.

6. More and more the publications should be adapted to fostering better school-community relations through the student body. Sound principles of journalism should characterize their administration.

SPEECH ACTIVITIES

Speech activities include oratory, declamation, debate, extemporaneous speaking, and other contests in which speech is prominently featured. Contests of this nature are held in the school or between schools and often take on a lively interest, especially where the competition is keen. As activities they do not attract as large audiences as their values would seem to indicate. Personal interest in the contestants is a powerful stimulus for attendance. Speech training and platform presence are values and outcomes to be encouraged.

DRAMATICS

Closely associated with speech activities and usually more popular with the student body and the public is school dramatics. Because of public interest in various forms of the drama, it has probably greater appeal, and hence greater usefulness, in creating community interest in the public schools. Plays should be carefully selected to contribute to public interest and approval of the school's program.

MUSICAL ACTIVITIES

Unless it be athletics, no public-school activity has caught the popular fancy more than its musical activities and organizations. School bands and orchestras, properly uniformed, are now to be found in even the smaller high schools, and in many elementary schools. Through its martial stir, emotional appeal, and visual display, the public has come to appreciate and applaud its school band, and through it the school.

Similarly, glee clubs, operettas, choruses, and individual or group musical performances attract large numbers of citizens. The function that each can perform with respect to a school-community relations program should be studied carefully.

It is important for every teacher to remember that most parents can be reached through the school activities of their own children. By the

same token many a child can be won over through his success in some activity. Names make news in these activities as well as in the newspaper. Moreover, every opportunity should be taken to use these organizations to create public good will within the limitations of the school's program.

SCHOOL ASSEMBLIES

School assemblies have generally centered about matters in which the pupils as a whole have a common interest. Ordinarily, these are concerned with affairs of interest within the school; yet there is an increasing tendency to relate them to conditions outside the school. School assembly programs may be good, bad, or indifferent. They can be made an excellent point of public contact and a source of inspiration throughout the school reaching into the community.

The assembly program offers an opportunity through pupil participation to interpret the work of the public schools. More especially should the school assembly be used to engender the larger purposes of the public school in the educational life of the community through occasional participation of community service clubs, representatives of vocational interests, invited speakers, and other individuals or groups of the community which will contribute towards this desired end. Assembly programs should be carefully planned with adequate pupil participation under friendly guidance. As the nature of the program and the seating facilities permit, parents and interested groups may be invited occasionally to attend.

CLUB ACTIVITIES AND SCHOOL SOCIETIES

The development of clubs and societies has grown to tremendous proportions in most of the secondary schools. Springing up with varying objectives, they have become generally popular in the educational program. They have been classified by Grinnell² in seven groups as follows:

1. Honorary organizations such as the National Honor Society, stressing high ideals, scholarship, and character.
2. Service clubs, with purposes intended to stimulate service to school and community, such as publicity, attendance, school library, thrift, etc.
3. Character organizations devoted to the moral and spiritual life of the student body, such as Hi-Y, Tri Hi-Y, Scouts, etc.
4. Civic clubs endeavoring to promote a more intelligent and active interest in current social, civic, and school affairs, contacting the public for speakers at elections and improving the understanding of community problems.
5. Study clubs with interests centering around some subject in the curriculum such as languages, music, art, industrial arts. These clubs make many community contacts.

² Grinnell, *Interpreting the Public Schools*, pp. 285-291.

6. Avocational clubs with leisure-time programs, such as radio, photography, aviation, and all types of hobbies. The prosecution of all sorts of interests and hobbies of this character brings pupils in close contact with many individuals, groups, and governmental agencies.

7. Athletic-club activities furthered through athletic interests, encouraging good sportsmanship and wholesome attitudes towards education.

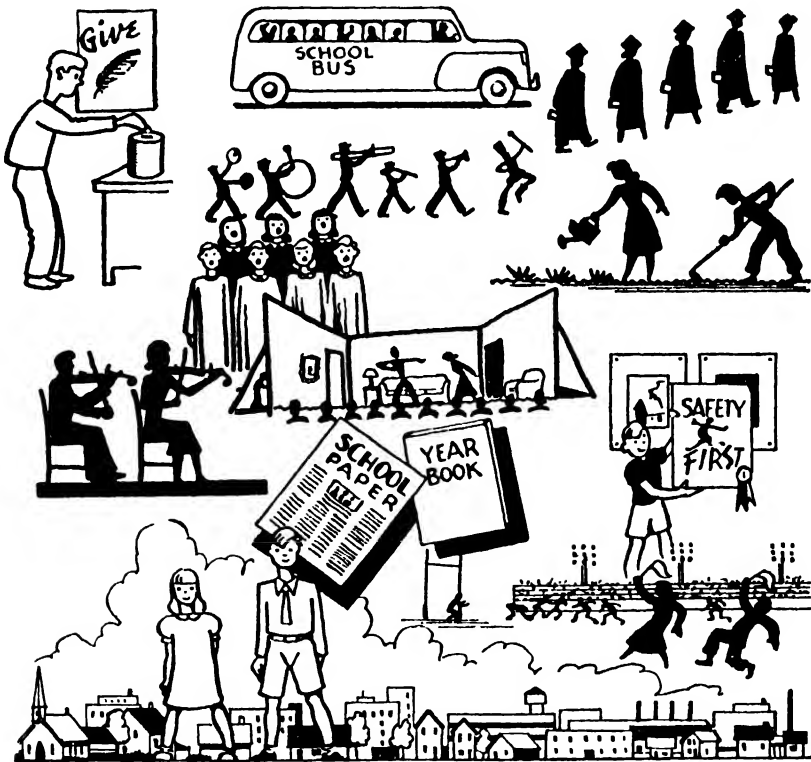
The very nature and purposes of many of these types of school activities suggest their usefulness in making desirable contacts within the community. Service clubs, character organizations, study clubs, and indeed most of those outlined in the preceding paragraph require for their success certain home and community contacts. In view of the wider purposes of public education, efforts should be made in every school to relate the purposes and activities of clubs and school societies with meaningful interpretations of community life and its activities.

SOME OBJECTIONS OF PARENTS TO EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Perhaps in many communities the whole extracurricular program has been allowed to get out of hand. Parents and communities in general have raised many objections out of which has come the need for better administration and understanding. Some of these objections are that children are loaded up with too many activities and consequently neglect their school work; that the cost to the parents, especially parents of low income, is too high; that pupils remain too long after school; the finances are not handled properly by teachers and students; that pupils remain out late at evening functions; that these functions are not properly chaperoned; that the school programs are not well synchronized, with overemphasis here and there; and that values claimed for them are strangely missing.

These are startling charges. They should be investigated and examined in the light of good school administration. The need for better relationships in the community in this area is vividly apparent. Perhaps the frequency of these problems arises from the fact that the activities are extracurricular. Our academic school day, with its fixed hours, has been transformed into a lengthened school day for children of all ages, with late afternoon, evening, and Saturday programs as well. Naturally, the responsibilities of the school are multiplied and the opportunities for parental and community contacts, with their irritation hazards, widened. Moreover, with widening school objectives including all phases of the physical, moral, and cultural welfare of children and adults as well, a new conception of education brings with it opportunities for community demands, disapproval, and opposition. At the same time, it is most unfor-

fortunate that the lay public quite often judges the "success" of the public school in terms of success in these so-called "extracurricular" aspects of the educational enterprise. The "winning team" is the symbol of this success. Probably the school is just as much at fault in that those in authority too often bask contentedly in this form of public approval, being aroused to action only by some untoward event which, by the difficulty of its solution, indicates only too well the deep-rooted nature of the educational misobjectives. The struggle for control of extracurricular activities, especially athletics, creates problems which are found all too frequently in many school communities. What is needed is the integration of all activities into a defensible educational program, with the community fully aware of its significance.



ACTIVITIES OF PUPILS AFFECTING COMMUNITY LIVING

SUGGESTIONS FOR PUPIL ACTIVITIES

In reviewing school activities in which pupils are and should be vitally concerned, several suggestions are offered for the development of more desirable school-community values:

1. The aims and purposes of all pupil activities and organizations should conform with the principles of education and relate to desirable school and community living.

2. Since the pupil is the *sine qua non* of the educational enterprise, he must assume responsibility for the conduct of these activities in proportion to his maturity, needs, and interests. This means that neither activities of this nature nor the programs themselves must be superimposed; nor the number and nature of such activities or programs be unrelated to the needs or problems of the school or the community; rather they should be so conducted that the pupil senses values to himself as well as definite relations to his home and community life.

3. Although publicity and interpretative features of these school activities are of secondary importance to their educational values to the pupil, opportunities should be taken to realize such values wherever possible in the interests of public education.

4. The happiness and well-being of the whole is a superior aim to the happiness and well-being of any selected individuals or groups in any democracy. Care must be taken that this principle is not violated in excessive individual or small group emphasis in athletics, dramatics, and other activities. Each individual or group should be permitted participation to a degree consistent with his own needs and the facilities available.

5. Where a selection of activities becomes necessary, the principles of greater educational value and wider participation should be applied.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND THE HEALTH PROGRAM

In many communities the public conception of the worth of the educational system is in the success of its athletic teams. Yet rarely is there a complete understanding on the part of the public of the place and function of the total health program, which includes athletics; nor is there an adequate conception of the purposes of physical education in character building, recreation, and other values which are present.

School Athletics. School athletics offers the largest single medium of mass public attendance. Unfortunately, "to win the game" is the public criterion of success, which by implication is applied by many to the whole school system. Community pressure to maintain a winning team, felt by the coach and the administration alike, often causes the "tail to wag the dog." Few citizens who attend athletic exhibitions are able to discern such character-building values of well-coached teams as cooperation, sportsmanship, strategic judgment, precision, development of physical perfection, modesty, fair play, and clean living. Unfortunately, many games are marred by sideline coaching, unfair or foul epithets, poor sportsmanship, a "win or else" attitude, and alibis which tend to create misunderstandings and unfortunate relationships.

Growing out of athletic achievements are many activities which touch

the public directly. Athletic banquets, held in both the school and the community, frequently offer admirable means to acquaint the public with the true purposes of the physical-education program and the relation of athletics to it. When individual athletic achievement is recognized, it would be more wholesome to mention also the qualities of regular school attendance, scholarship, and character. These are their own rewards.

School athletics in many communities are governed by a board of control composed of school officials, school-board members, and citizens from the community. Since athletics is really "big business" in many communities in so far as receipts are concerned, banks are sometimes called upon to manage the fiscal affairs. Rumored misuse of athletic funds may occasion scandal and embarrassment. Large athletic fields are built and equipment purchased at large cost. Board members and school officials are hypersensitive to any criticism of school policies in regard to athletics. Because of these problems, some states have revised laws and regulations in regard to control and management. The support of athletics often becomes a drain upon school and community alike. Drives for funds, sale of tickets, businessmen's donations, and many similar incidents create a need for better understandings.

In times of emotional excitement before or after the game itself, situations occur which often get out of hand. School control is relaxed because it may be difficult to maintain. To his shame, a principal may defend an overt act of mischief because he is afraid to do otherwise. Demands for holidays after an important victory are often difficult to refuse; visiting teams often mar school buildings with paint, whitewash, ripe vegetables, or stones; destruction of property often follows disputes, or disappointments at failure to win, or accusations of unsportsmanlike tactics. Student strikes have been known to occur for real or fancied reasons. Editors of community newspapers in strategic positions all too often fail to help when untoward situations occur. Rather, they declare such untoward events "real news" and have been known actually to encourage school strikes; this is to be deplored.

In view of the exaggerated importance which school athletics has often attained in school and community alike, there is need to orient it in its proper place in the school program. The initial step lies with the school board and the administration. Then the public must be led through proper means to appreciate the place and function of school athletics. Control should always be vested and maintained within the school.

Perhaps the most revealing exposure of the athletic situation in American public schools has been made by Funk,⁸ who pointed out what is

⁸ Mark Funk, "We are in the Entertainment Business," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 30 (March 1949), 286-8.

generally admitted—that school athletics have degenerated from an educational level to one of entertainment. In one school of medium size, more than 100,000 paying customers were “entertained” by the school authorities through athletic events. If we include other school activities which seemed to have been designed in the same direction, a very substantial part of the time of public-school administrators is spent in preparing entertainment to “satisfy their customers.” For such entertainment enormous stadia are built, brilliantly lighted for night contests, school bands are elaborately outfitted. And the same communities which spend enormous sums for these purposes house their children in outmoded buildings and pay their teachers (not their coaches, who receive salaries double those of the teachers) paltry salaries on which they cannot maintain even a decent standard of living.

Community pressure seems to be blamed for the “professionalization” of high school athletics. Coaches who win are exalted and rewarded beyond reason. Coaches who lose are condemned by a fickle public and their replacement demanded. The educational values of sports and sportsmanship are lost amid the spectacle where amateurism has fled and where gambling has entered. Perhaps nothing will be done until the citizens *en masse* tire of it all and return school athletics to the boys and girls, where it belongs.

Other Physical Education and Recreational Activities. So much emphasis has been placed on school athletics that other desirable physical education and recreational activities have been lost sight of. Many schools have well-organized physical educational programs definitely related to the health service and manned by competent instructors. On occasion mass demonstrations are arranged to which the community is invited. Greater emphasis is being laid on activities for recreation and leisure time. These may provide training in games requiring certain skills, competitive stunts, or just play and relaxation. They should encourage the habits of recreation, and, if properly taught, can carry over into the community and in later life. Many of these mass activities become pageants to which the public is invited, as on May Day or commencement.

COMMENCEMENT

SIGNIFICANCE

Suitable exercises marking the close of a semester or a school year and variously known as commencements, graduation exercises, or promotion exercises, constitute one of the oldest of school activities to which the

public is invited. Many of the studies of their value in school-community relations rank them high in publicity value. Farley's statement⁴ is typical:

Graduation exercises rank third after school exhibits and city newspapers in the frequency with which they are employed as publicity media. Sixty-three per cent of the principals make commencement a special period for school interpretation.

McKown⁵ has pointed out the integrating value of education through commencement activities.

Graduation and promotion exercises offer about the best opportunities there are for educating the community in what the school is really attempting to do. When a community attends a football game it thinks in terms of athletics; when it attends a play it thinks in terms of dramatics; when it attends a concert it thinks in terms of music; but when it attends a graduation or promotion exercise it thinks in terms of education and this is about the only time during the year when its attention is centered on its educational system and its educational profits.

CHANGING EMPHASIS

Traditional and stereotyped patterns of commencement exercises in use for many years the country over, with the usual music, essays, and paid speakers, are giving way to commencement exercises designed to interpret the work of the school to the assembled parents and patrons. Programs with themes built around the aims of the school, such as one of the seven cardinal principles (see pp. 11-12) or other school objectives, illustrate this newer tendency. The pupils themselves prepare the program under teacher guidance and are the principal participants. These programs should stress the aims and purposes of education, the manner in which these aims are being achieved, the part which the pupils play in the program, and the relationship of education to home, community, and national life. Commencement exercises and activities may well be accompanied by appropriate demonstrations or exhibits of school work. Pageants, plays, and similar exercises held outdoors are increasing in popularity.

VALUES

Commencement exercises are of strategic importance in any desirable program of school-community relationships. To parents, they are gala as well as serious occasions. Special invitations issued to parents and friends of the graduating class have brought to the school persons who seldom

⁴ Belmont Farley, "Educational Interpretation for the Secondary School," *National Education Association Proceedings* (1932), p. 497.

⁵ H. C. McKown, "The Place of Student Activities in a Public Relations Program," *Education*, 53 (Oct. 1932), p. 81.

have ventured inside a school building. Many of these are perhaps supercilious; some of them are proud of the school and its accomplishments; some are its critics. Heavy taxpayers mingle with those who have not paid even their school taxes. Here is the opportunity of the school staff to show a spirit of welcome and make the occasion a joyous one, with the desirable outcome of making many new friends for public education. Some phase of education and its place in a democracy, which has been emphasized during the year, should be the theme of each commencement.

Representatives of the community—such as clergymen, distinguished alumni, distinguished citizens, representatives of community educational activities who, during the year, have performed meritorious educational service—may well be invited to participate in some minor capacity. Other individuals who can serve to show contributing educational service in a community may be invited. If school authorities are alert to study and seize these opportunities, the cause of education in any community will be better understood and will prosper accordingly.

CONCLUDING OBSERVATIONS

School impressions conveyed by pupils through their school life, its activities and programs, or by personal observation and reports are of great influence for the public schools in home and community living. Pupils are sensitive to the conduct of teachers, their mannerisms, attitudes, and social relations. They react strongly to teachers liked or disliked, and they convey these attitudes quickly to the home. Perhaps they may be wrong, but nevertheless the impression and attitudes they convey prevail.

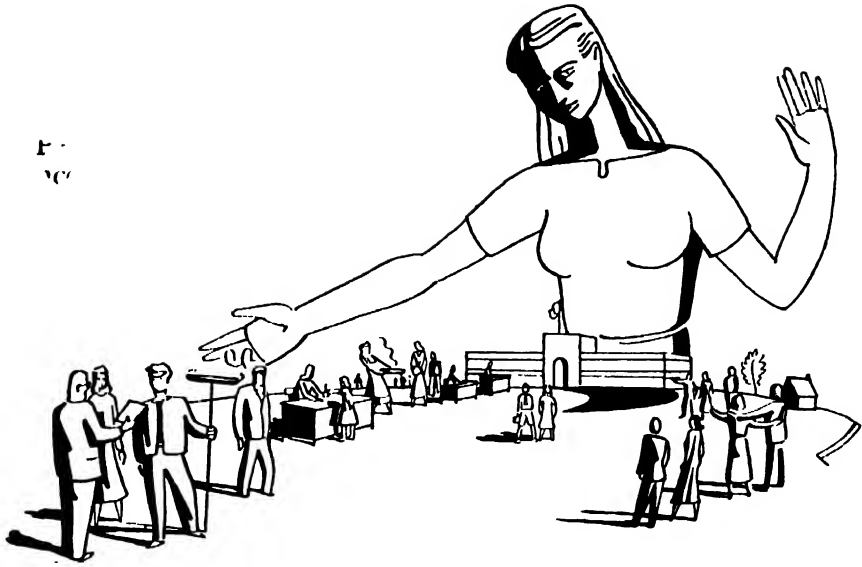
It is important, therefore, that these contacts and activities of the school in which the pupil is so vitally concerned be wholesome, necessary to his progress, and closely integrated to sound educational objectives. Pupils express themselves best through those activities in which they may have some means of control. They may seek sympathy or support from somewhere in the community and have little difficulty in gaining that support. On the positive side, there is perhaps no single agency more advantageous in building a sound school-community relations program than developing wholesome childhood.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. To what extent is it true that the pupil himself is the most potent agency in (1) creating and (2) solving home-school problems?
2. What is the most significant school activity from a school-community relations point of view? Why?
3. Make a study of a selected school system to ascertain the interest of parents in the schools' publications.
4. Rank in order ten school activities from the standpoint of (1) community interest, (2) school-community problems. Explain your ranking.
5. What are the (1) values, (2) dangers in school assembly programs from the standpoint of the community?
6. Should the school band be permitted to play at exercises other than those pertaining to the school? Explain.
7. Make a study of commencement programs. Evaluate them by means of a set of criteria.
8. What procedures can be adopted to require pupils to take more responsibility for their own activities? What should be the extent of teacher control over them?

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CHAPTER 10

The Noninstructional Staff

MISS WARREN was answering the telephone. "Allison City Public Schools," she said in a soft, friendly voice. "Yes, the superintendent is in. I am sure that he will be glad to see you. Can you come at four o'clock today for a conference?" Miss Warren was an unusual young woman. She had been secretary to the superintendent for nearly ten years, and her efficient manner had created many friends for the Allison City Public Schools. She had assisted the high school principal in selecting and training the girls who were known as "receptionists" and had supplied them with much material for school visitors.

It was true that several of the school custodians in Allison City still owed their positions to political appointments. But only a year ago the superintendent had won an important victory regarding their selection after a stormy session of the school board. He had been trying to improve their personal appearance and efficiency and to encourage them to become interested in visitors to the schools. Home and school visitors had also replaced the former attendance officers. Improvement in school attend-

ance seemed to justify this change. The teachers were better satisfied.

Although pleased with these achievements, the superintendent knew that there were some members of the school board who were still politically minded about all school appointments. Politics had no place in the public schools and he was determined to do everything he could in that direction. The proposed school-community relations program must emphasize the importance of the noninstructional staff. He knew that he could count on the parent-teacher association.



Most of the members of the noninstructional staff in a school system are laymen, as far as the school is concerned, and bring to the school a laymen's point of view. In their associations with the school they have an opportunity to understand and appreciate its problems. They are in an advantageous position to converse with the school authorities regarding matters of school and community interest, and their point of view and manner of expression are unique. In the community they gather from other laymen reactions to the educational program. Many of them—for example, school clerks and attendance officers—make direct contacts with the community. Quite often they serve as liaison agents and are in a strategic position to render good service in dealing with pupils' problems. Good staff administration should include all personnel as an integral part of the system itself and utilize their services, whenever possible, in developing desirable school-community relations.

This chapter will discuss the health department, school clerks, custodians, cafeteria and similar employees, bus drivers, attendance department, the business department, and other officers of the board and point out their place and function in the school-community relations program.

THE APPROACH

The school personnel included in this chapter do not have immediate contact generally with the instructional process, and for that reason they have been classified, for the most part, as noninstructional. Their services may be classified as auxiliary to the instructional process. Writers generally agree that these groups are the personnel most neglected in school-community relations. Yet, because of their many community contacts, they are in a strategic position to render valuable service.

One significant difference is apparent with respect to this group. Since professional preparation is not required, except in a few instances, they

do not come into the tasks with first-hand knowledge of education and its purposes. Perhaps the first task of the school administrator is to educate these personnel concerning the school, its program, and its purposes, and the place and function of associated staff members in a school-community relations program.

This personnel group is occasionally selected for political reasons or in return for favors. Some recognition having been granted them, they may not feel the obligation to become closely aligned with other school personnel. Possibly their "connections" may cause them to become a source of friction and difficulty. The remedy here is obviously one of appointment on merit and ability through administrative channels. Because some appointments may come through the board of education without regard to the administration, the latter may be able to exercise little real control over them. Sometimes a school janitor or other employee has been known to become a strong "political boss," feared by all because of his influence.

Two economic and social problems should be mentioned. The first of these is the wide range of payments for services rendered. In some instances these employees have been exploited; in other instances, custodians, for example, have been paid considerably more than teachers. Low wages and unsatisfactory conditions have nurtured attempts to unionize many public employees. Although no one can question the right of these groups to unionize, advantages gained through such means are open to serious question. Some states prohibit strikes by public employees. Most salaries are fixed by state law. Tax ceilings prevent wage increases above a certain maximum. Bargaining and arbitration are always open to constructive use. Most significant of all is the denial of services to boys and girls when issues cannot be resolved. A second problem is the difference in personal and social status between many of these workers and professional personnel. Professional workers have not always been friendly and courteous. Racial differences sometimes complicate the situation. It should not be forgotten that all are engaged in the same task. It is obvious that an internal-relations program including all school personnel is the point of departure.

THE HEALTH SERVICE

The health service may be said to include those health specialists who are specifically assigned to locate and, in part, correct physical defects and improve health generally. These include the medical services, school

nurses, dieticians, the dental services, psychiatrists, and speech specialists, and social workers regularly attached to the health division.¹

MEDICAL AND DENTAL SERVICES

The services of the physicians and dentists, employed generally part time, except in larger cities, include physical examinations, remedial suggestions, corrective work, and occasional instruction in health, sex, and hygiene. The school requires a medical inventory of the health status of the children. The health examination, ideally made in the presence of parents, serves to screen out children whose physical conditions require diagnosis and treatment and those whose obvious defects indicate the need for remedial attention. Actual treatment is referred to the family physician, specialists, hospitals, and clinics. The school physician cooperates with public-health authorities. He inspects sanitation, assists in developing health policies, and acts as a liaison officer with the board of education, administration, and the profession in matters concerning health.

Much of what has been said applies as well to the school dentist. Difficulties sometimes arise among practitioners as to questions of favoritism and the assignment of corrective work. Probably the greatest fear of these professions, perhaps unwarranted, is that of socialized medicine in school health service.

SCHOOL NURSE

The school nurse is a conspicuous public school employee. Unless transportation or other duties take up too much of her time, she can render satisfactory service to 1500 pupils of elementary-school age, or to 2000 to 2500 high-school students.² Emphasizing health in the program of the school, her duties are closely associated with the school physician. She is concerned with illness as a cause of absence, the treatment of minor cases of infection, illness in the schools, epidemics, accidents, and similar conditions. She may give health talks in the schools, advise pupils in health matters, and make contacts with the home, particularly as an outcome of the health examination. In some communities the school nurse is assigned such other duties as assisting with the school census and attendance. In the solution of health problems, she may use information gathered by the social worker. Through these activities, she is in a strategic position to maintain desirable school-community relations.³

¹ For a discussion of the health program and the health service in the public schools, see William A. Yeager, *Administration and the Pupil*, Chap. XVII.

² National Education Association and American Medical Association, Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education, *The Nurse in the School* (1941), p. 36.

³ Compare "Health in Schools," *Twentieth Yearbook*, American Association of School Administrators, N. E. A. (1942), pp. 259-262.

OTHER HEALTH PERSONNEL

The dental hygienist, who serves as the dentist's receptionist and assistant, makes many contacts with pupils and parents. Nutritionists are employed in several large cities for the specific purpose of helping children (and their parents) understand their bodily requirements, particularly in relation to food values. The cafeteria offers opportunities to provide balanced meals, but in its absence other means must be resorted to. Hot lunches can be served through committees of parents and/or teachers. Cold lunches brought from home can be supplemented by a "hot dish," or milk. The donation of surplus commodities to schools has done much for the nutrition of children. The nutritionist can establish many community contacts with the home and other health agencies in improving diets and encouraging the better feeding of children. There is a growing recognition of the importance of nutrition to basic health, since some writers believe that more than one third of the nation is inadequately fed. Psychologists, psychiatrists, social workers, and supervisors of health and physical education complete the group associated with the health service. All of them are in different ways concerned with the home and the community.⁴

SCHOOL CLERKS AND THE INFORMATION SERVICE

The school clerk, or secretary, because of her varied responsibilities, should be well groomed, and have a pleasing personality, easily adaptable to the many situations which may confront her. Her principal duties relate to office routine, secretarial work, telephone calls, records and reports, and direct contacts with teachers and pupils. The school clerk occupies a strategic position in meeting parents and the general public who come as visitors to the school. Her friendly greeting and manner can often dissipate a grievance before it is expressed. Similarly, the school clerk can save the time of principals and teachers and in many ways create healthy public attitudes towards the school. She can explain simply and clearly the school and its objectives. She can distribute previously prepared circulars and school publications of general interest. She can administer the office with neatness, accuracy, orderliness, and dispatch, answer the telephone courteously, and prevent loitering, especially of pupils. She can point out matters of interest while conducting the parent or visitor

⁴See *ibid.* for a good account of personnel associated with the health services in schools. Also Harriet Stone, "The Functions of the Nutritionist," *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, 9:482-3; 519 (Oct. 1938).

through the school. She can, by adroitness, rid the school of unwelcome visitors. An efficient school clerk is a "gem of purest ray serene" in school-community relations.

School clerks and secretaries should be socially intelligent persons, with a well-rounded general knowledge of the school system. They should possess tact and good judgment and indicate a willingness to do many different things. Many larger schools have developed an information service with one or more receptionists in charge. From desks or tables located in the halls, these persons greet visitors, hand out informational material, and see that the purpose of the visit has been satisfied as far as possible. Pupils are coming to play an important part in this service; they should be carefully selected and prepared, and organized through a club activity or appointed because of peculiar fitness and service.

The telephone has come to be a necessary means of communication in the public schools. Except in the rural or small-town school, nearly every public-school building is equipped with telephone service. It is used by everyone associated with the educational enterprise—administrative officers, clerical assistants, teachers, janitors, and pupils.

The public-school telephone is used both to give and receive information. It may be necessary to inform parents of their children's difficulties, check on attendance, and give or receive messages about weather conditions, errands to be performed, or emergency situations. Too often, the telephone has become the means of hasty conversation concerning the pupil, and words are said which had better been left unsaid. Similarly, business relations should be conducted with courtesy as well as dispatch.

As a general rule, it is much better for parents, principal, and teacher to talk face to face instead of using the telephone, especially where the child's welfare is concerned. When irritated parents call, seemingly greatly disturbed about some trivial affair, the reassuring telephone voice and manner of the principal, teacher, or clerk can do much to relieve the situation.

Principals, teachers, and clerks should learn to cultivate a soft telephone voice, one that carries well without irritation. Rising inflections should be avoided, as well as sharp intonations or hasty speech. As a bright smile illuminates the face of its owner and disarms the one irritated, so the voice with a smile. A voice which is pleasant, friendly, cordial, cheerful, interested, and helpful should be cultivated in place of one which is expressionless, mechanical, indifferent, impatient, inattentive, and repelling.

As in personal conferences, much can be accomplished by the good

listener. Where complaints are offered over the telephone, it is well to insist that the complainant come to the school if matters cannot be satisfactorily adjusted. Principals and teachers who leave teaching and other duties to engage in lengthy telephone conversations are probably not using their time to best advantage.

SCHOOL CUSTODIANS

RESPONSIBILITIES

The total value of public school property, buildings, sites, and equipment in the United States is estimated to be approximately $9\frac{1}{2}$ billion dollars, a national average value of more than \$385 per pupil enrolled. Although boards of education are directly responsible for the construction and maintenance of properties represented by this immense investment, its actual care, cleanliness, and preservation are the responsibility of the school custodians, engineers, and maintenance force employed by the board of education. The building service employees have the following responsibilities: (1) care of property, (2) safety, (3) health, (4) standards of cleanliness, (5) standards of neatness, (6) maintaining conditions for better teaching and learning, (7) creating good will, and (8) effecting economies.⁵

QUALIFICATIONS

The school custodian should be employed because of his ability to do his work well rather than because of sympathy, friendship, or political motives. Within the school he makes many contacts with teachers, pupils, and the administration. His duties should be carefully outlined and scheduled. He should be required to be neat and courteous. Through direct communications, he should receive information concerning the school and its activities. He should receive copies of all publications of general school interest directly, rather than through picking them out of wastepaper baskets. He should be encouraged to convey to school officials or teachers information which he may have gleaned from pupil and community contacts. A cooperative school staff will encourage him to come to them with his annoyances and grievances, rather than air them to the board individually or to the community at large. He should be a man who likes children, since he must deal with them daily. As he gains their

⁵ Henry H. Linn, Leslie C. Helm, and K. P. Grabarkiewicz, *The School Custodian's Housekeeping Handbook* (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1948), Chap. I.

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good will, he will save himself much unnecessary work. He should be dignified and courteous to pupils, using proper language, since he exercises an important influence, especially with boys.

FUNCTION IN SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

In school-community relations, the school custodian occupies a place of considerable importance. The cleanliness and orderliness of his school makes for the health, happiness, and well-being of teachers and pupils. His personal appearance and pleasing manners should be a source of pride to those within the school, as well as to parents and other visitors whom he often greets at the schoolhouse door. Many school systems now provide uniforms. His ability and willingness to make minor repairs or perform his duties well can save the time and temper of teachers and pupils, and at the same time the taxpayers' money. He wields an important moral influence over pupils in his language, habits, use of alcohol or tobacco, and exercise of self-control. Quite often his lack of cooperation with the principal and the teaching staff is due not so much to laziness as to the workings of a defense mechanism because of social status or indifferent attitudes assumed toward him. Politics too often enters the schools through the janitor's door; this is not as it should be.

The school custodian has varied community contacts, perhaps through politics, fraternal organizations, church affiliations, or long residence. Perhaps he knows more of the internal workings of the school than most teachers, especially in the smaller schools. What he says in the community about the schools will often be accepted by many of its citizens as the whole truth. Quite often he is close to one or more members of the board of education. Wise and tactful administrators and teachers will recognize his strategic position in this respect. They will seek to keep him reliably informed, encourage his cooperation and assistance through friendly suggestions and information, seek his advice in matters in which he can be of assistance, recognize him as an employee responsible for important duties, as others are responsible for other important duties, and replace him, if he leaves, with as high a type of individual as can be found.

CAFETERIA WORKERS AND OTHER EMPLOYEES

The school cafeteria is now an essential feature of every modern school. Balanced hot lunches are served for all pupils under the direction of the home-economics teacher or the nutritionist and the cafeteria

workers who prepare and serve the meals. Aside from the nutritional values, there are social values associated with the school lunch program. In schools where these facilities are not available, parents often assist in serving a daily hot lunch, usually under the direction of the parent-teacher association or mothers' club. A great impetus to the school lunch program has been given by the federal government in providing food from surplus stocks of commodities.

In many public schools there are other employees who perform essential services and make limited contacts with the public. These include matrons, cleaning women, maids, book-store personnel, maintenance employees, and groundkeepers. Many of the same suggestions apply to these groups. Politics has no place in their appointments or their continuance where they have not demonstrated competency. Their recompense should be adequate, their duties clearly outlined, and their contacts with the public dignified and courteous. They should receive adequate recognition in their position and for their services, and be made to feel that they are definitely a part of the educational program.

BUS DRIVERS

The vast growth in the transportation of pupils has produced many problems with respect to parents, pupils, and the public. In 1946 more than 5,000,000 pupils, more than one fifth of the total, were transported to school in more than 90,000 school buses. These require skilled bus drivers, both men and women. In some cases older boys and girls are used to drive vehicles transporting pupils. State laws and regulations are designed to ensure the safety and well-being of transported pupils.

Problems in transportation with respect to the home may center around discipline, distance traveled, inclement weather, racial segregation, safety, and exceptional children, such as crippled and cardiac cases. Schedule problems growing out of the transportation system are difficult to solve. Other problems pertain to provision for extracurricular activities, such as athletics and dramatics, evening affairs, and trips to museums. The transportation of non-public-school children has become a national issue.

Bus drivers should be courteous, know how to handle children, be selected because of their character, skill and efficiency, be cooperative with all concerned, and conform strictly with state laws, rules, and regulations. The safety of the children is entrusted to their care. School transportation has become a large enterprise.

ATTENDANCE PERSONNEL

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

Except where some form of education is provided under private or parochial auspices, most of the children of the nation attend the public schools. Their attendance is a primary parental obligation. Noncompliance with compulsory school attendance laws brings into action the attendance officer, who is empowered under legal mandate to "bring the body" of the child to school and, where necessary, to hale the parent before the local justice, who may administer fines or imprisonment for failure to send the child to school.

The attendance officer, in many districts, constitutes the only means of contact between some homes and the school. To some parents, the school is the attendance officer. If the work of the school is uninteresting, if the teacher is poorly qualified, if the attitudes of the home toward the school are unwholesome, if the school authorities or the attendance officer (who may be the school janitor in smaller communities) are untactful, unreasonable, or "brutal," serious hindrances to desirable school-community relationships may be the outcome.

NONATTENDANCE

The causes of nonattendance in school children should be investigated carefully. We are here concerned especially with those causes in which some responsibility lies within the community. Parental disapproval of teachers or the school should not be aired before children, either in the home or in community gatherings. Community celebrations should be so scheduled as not to interfere with school attendance. Seasonal occupations requiring the labor of children of school age should be adjusted to the school program as far as possible. In some communities, pupils are excused from school attendance during the harvesting of crops and the school term is lengthened accordingly. Child-labor restrictions should be pointed out to parents as aimed at the development of a better manhood and womanhood. Youth-serving organizations can receive school approval and support in helping to orient the child to his social and economic problems.

SOCIAL SERVICE

The social-service concept has done much to improve the administration of school attendance. Visiting teachers, home and school visitors, and

the school nurse have replaced the attendance officers. These persons have been trained in social service and carry with them the teacher's point of view. They bring about a healthier, happier relationship among the child, his home, and the school. They cooperate with other social agencies and with the teachers.

The school has developed many contacts with social agencies, especially in larger cities. These contacts are invaluable, especially where underprivileged children are involved. Many schools are using teachers and home and school visitors to take the school census. In their many contacts they can answer questions about the school and obtain the cooperation of the home. The school census routine is an excellent means of gauging the opinion of the community.

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADMINISTRATION OF ATTENDANCE

Much progress has been made in the administration of compulsory attendance through the exercise of kindly but firm contact by the attendance officer and, still more recently, by the employment of trained visiting teachers and the school nurse. If it is not possible to administer the compulsory attendance laws through the employment of a trained visiting teacher, or through planned home visitation, present means of enforcing attendance should be studied and improved wherever possible in the interests of better school attitudes. The following suggestions are offered in bringing about better school-community relationships in this regard:

1. School attendance should be maintained through an attractive school program rather than through compulsion. To this end, schools should be "the happiest place to be" for each pupil.

2. Illnesses of children cause many problems of attendance. This is a two-sided problem. Many children are often too ill to be in school; others not ill enough to be at home. Common sense and the advice of the school nurse and the family or school physician will do much to dissipate illness problems. It should also be remembered that illness is a "cover-up" for many other causes of absence.

3. The enforcement of school attendance within its legal limitations should be accompanied by the full exercise of patience, tact, common sense, and a regard for the complementary rights of the home and the school over the child. Resort to stern, repressive measures, fines, and imprisonment should be used in emergency cases only, and upon recalcitrant parents or guardians unresponsive to the place of education in a democracy or the educational rights of childhood. They should not need a second experience and they should become friendly in the process.

4. The attendance officer should have a pleasing personality, dress neatly in civilian clothes rather than in an officer's uniform, be interested in children, and regard his attendance work as a means of helping the child

and developing rapport between the home and the school. Calls outside of regular working hours may be necessary to achieve this aim.

5. The employment of the visiting teacher or school nurse with attendance responsibility should supersede the traditional attendance officer wherever possible.

6. Opportunities should be seized through attendance contacts to acquaint the parents with the work of the school, its aims, and its importance to the child, and every endeavor made to develop, on the part of the parent, greater interest in the school's program.

BUSINESS DEPARTMENT

Members of the business department of a school system make many points of contact with the general public. If its business affairs are conducted in an efficient business manner, the reputation of the school district for honest dealing, prompt payment of bills, and careful management with business firms, many of whose employees are parents, will do much to create an environment in which more desirable school-community relations may thrive. Particularly in smaller school districts is there room for much improvement in business management and credit relationships. All dealings should be honest, open, and without favoritism. Care should be taken to avoid dictatorial direction from banks and business firms to whom the district may be indebted. School administrators through adequate preparation and good common sense can render much service in this connection.

OFFICERS OF THE BOARD

The officers of the board in their official positions make many contacts with the community, especially with business and commercial enterprises, banks, service and similar organizations, and taxpayers in general. The tax collector is a fruitful source of complaints registered with him on this occasion, and the attitude of many people toward education seems to revolve about the payment of their school taxes.

A board meeting efficiently conducted, in which the business of the school district is administered with dispatch and the petty details of school management left to the responsible administrative officer, increases the confidence of the community in the school. Particularly is this true in regard to the absence of favoritism shown to certain larger taxpayers, corporation heads, certain teachers, or business firms in awarding contracts, or favoritism shown in similar ways not conducive to desirable community attitudes. Conflicting relationships should not be allowed to

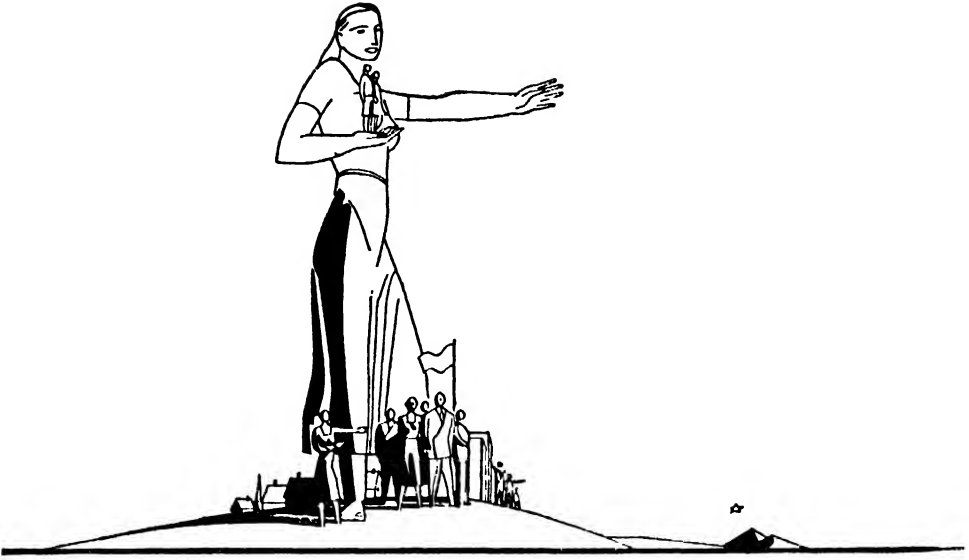
exist between the board of education and its administrative officer. The theory of administration is quite clear on this point. The board of education is the legislative and policy-making body; the administrative officer is its chief executive and policy-executing officer. Conflicts of authority in regard to a confusion of policy often lead to quarrels in which the community takes sides. Such quarrels have been known to cause deep and lasting schisms in the community life, with ill effects to education in general and to the public schools in particular. Suffice it to point out that the officers of the board and elected officials create good will in relation to honest and efficient public service.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Distinguish between the nonprofessional staff and the noninstructional staff.
2. Select a larger school system and make a list of the personnel who can be classified as nonprofessional and noninstructional.
3. Set up a list of specifications of each of the personnel described in this chapter.
4. How could you proceed to eliminate the problems surrounding the appointment of nonprofessional personnel?
5. Make a study in a selected community of the relationships of personnel included in this chapter.
6. Compare the services to the community of (a) attendance officers, (b) home and school visitors, and (c) school nurse in administering attendance.
7. Draw up a list of regulations governing community relationship for (a) custodians, (b) bus drivers, and (c) school clerks.

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CHAPTER 11

The Educational Program

THE COMMITTEE of teachers and parents which had been working on the revision of the elementary curriculum were seated about the large table in the board of directors' room. Miss Kiefer, principal of the Washington School and chairman of the committee, was saying, "How can we provide learning experiences in our elementary program to suit the different abilities of our children, remembering that they have such varied social backgrounds? Do you think that we should place greater emphasis on the core curriculum?"

"What is the core curriculum?" asked Mrs. Brown, one of the invited parents. That called for an explanation from two of the teachers who were attending a course in "Elementary Curricula" at the University. The superintendent remarked that the new state program called for certain things to be taught. The president of the parent-teacher association asked whether the public schools were teaching sex and marriage education, as was brought out at the last meeting of the association. He thought they should, although a great many parents were opposed. One teacher in the First Ward School remarked that the home was giving over too many

responsibilities to the school. "After all," she said, "the schools must stress the fundamentals along with good character."

After considerable discussion, it was agreed that the chairman should appoint three subcommittees: one to draw up desirable objectives for the elementary schools, a second to study and report on the new state bulletin on the elementary curriculum, and a third to study the problems of the different elementary schools and their relations with the homes in those communities. Mrs. Brown was chosen as a member of this committee. She thought this was the best school meeting she ever attended, and she hurried home to tell John about it.

Like the school itself, the curriculum has come to reflect the general social order. What the people desire their children to be taught has become a part of the educational program. We have already noted that two forces have been acting to shape the curriculum—namely, tradition and usefulness. Subjects which have been found to be educationally useful at one time continue to be traditionally acceptable long after their usefulness has been outlived. This is one of the strongest reasons why the educational program must be kept constantly under close scrutiny by both school and community.

This chapter begins with a brief statement of the philosophy of a modern educational program, particularly as it pertains to social living in our American democracy. Emphasis is placed upon the role of the program in the school community, and practices and procedures are illustrated by examples. Many opportunities for community contacts are pointed out not only in the academic program but in pupil activities and in group dynamics in planning curriculum procedures. The many new obligations thrust upon the public schools by the complexities of modern social living are examined in relation to community reactions. The chapter closes with a brief discussion of the relations of the public schools to other educational institutions within the community.

THE OBJECTIVES OF EDUCATION AND THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

OBJECTIVES

It would be well for the student of school-community relations to review the objectives of education which have been set forth in Chapter 1. In summary, these may be stated as follows: (1) social reproduction—that is, reproduction in the rising generation of the cultural heritage, and (2)

constant readjustment to changes in our social heritage so that the individual may attain greater self-realization, and so that the sum total of human happiness and harmony for all men may be enhanced.

The dependence which our modern social living places upon education is best demonstrated by the increasing range of skills and understandings demanded of each person today. This is true not only in our economic and industrial civilization but politically and socially as well. As our political and social horizons enlarge, the need becomes the greater. These facts place enormous responsibilities upon organized education to bring about this needed adjustment and social progress of youth, and demand a degree of cooperation never before anticipated.

SOCIAL CHANGE AND THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

Nothing is so obvious as social change. A single discovery or invention—such as the use of atomic energy—may bring about changes requiring many adjustments. Rules of conduct and of community living are changing. These and other factors emphasize the necessity for constant readaptation of the educational program. New subjects—such as vocational training, safety education, consumer education, and sex education—are added to the curriculum. New experiences become necessary. A new emphasis is given to community service through forums and councils. Community resources are utilized more and more in the educational program. The spiritual life of the community has become an educational concern, although we do not yet know how to administer it. School buildings are kept open for more hours in the day and for more days in the year. The school program is being extended both upward and downward.¹ As a result, increased community support is of major concern in school-community relations.

CHILDREN'S EXPERIENCES AND THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

Lest we become immersed in subjects and materials, let us discuss the educational program from another approach. Children in a community are citizens and as such participate in the life of the community in their homes as well as in the school. They must be taught, under the leadership of the school, to participate in the actual life of the community at first hand. They must be taught to assume responsibilities for their own acts, and to gain practice in solving their own problems. These will vary with

¹ *Toward a New Curriculum* (Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, 1944). This is a forward-looking study of the school's educational program. See also "Secondary School Programs for Improved Living" and "Curriculum Trends in the Secondary School," *Bulletins of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* (May and November 1948).

each community. There is no set pattern for an educational program, nor will a successful program in one community always prove successful in another.

The schools, then, should study (1) the nature and needs of each pupil, (2) the conditions and experiences which face the pupils in the community, and (3) the ways and means by which the highest degree of harmonious living may be brought about. To this end, the approach to the educational program may well be in terms of the pupil—his problems, nature, needs, and activities in his own environment. At the same time, it must not be forgotten that there is a cultural heritage which has become fixed through accepted subject-matter areas, and which may be said to be dominant in the educational program, regardless of educational lag. Since most of our secondary-school programs are built around these subject areas, they should be examined carefully for their usefulness and adapted to a forward-looking educational program built upon these principles.²

LEGISLATIVE MANDATES

One other factor in the development of a long-term educational program which can perpetuate our social traditions and institutions is the role played by the state. The educational program of the public school—or at least its minimum requirements—has been mandated through state legislative action. Since legislatures are composed of laymen, it is obvious that the people generally have much influence on what shall be taught in the public schools.³ These legislative prescriptions, changed relatively slowly and infrequently, act as a force toward conservatism. Since they represent minimum requirements, communities vary widely in their application. This community differentiation and attitude regarding what shall be taught in the public schools and the manner of teaching it are potent forces in the development and administration of the educational program locally.

COMMUNITY CONTACTS THROUGH THE ACADEMIC PROGRAM

The educational program, in its broad sense, includes all those activities and experiences with which the child comes in contact while under the supervision of the school. For convenience it may be divided into (1) the academic program and (2) the activity program. The academic

² The student should consult Florence B. Stratemeyer, *et al.*, *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living* (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947), for an excellent discussion of this program.

³ Consult James Dick Shaner, *Legislative Control of the Elementary Curriculum* (Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1941).

program consists of those subjects developed out of the historic past which have become time-honored largely for their liberal training. From time to time the subject matter is revamped, and new subjects are added as needed. Traditional subject matter succumbs to change slowly as a result of scientific discovery and social pressure. There are many significant occasions in which the academic program can become more community centered and made more meaningful to boys and girls. It is the purpose of this section to examine some of these fields of academic study. The activity program will be discussed in a later section.

ENGLISH

Language is the vehicle of expression. Where one language is spoken it becomes probably the greatest single factor tending to unify a diversified population. The use of correct English enables one to carry on his conversation, his business, his reading, his work; it gives him confidence to lead, to speak, to direct. Through a knowledge of literature, ideals are developed and general culture established.

There are many activities growing out of the teaching of English, however, which touch the community directly. The English of the classroom can become the English of the home. Public-speaking activities, such as debates, dramatics, and forensics, are often attended by the public, who whereby judges the work of the school. Participation in assembly events to which the public is occasionally invited is sponsored usually by the English department. Book week, book reviews, library activities, the school publications, newspaper reporting, poems and articles, drives and slogans, correspondence with pupils of other schools and countries, commencement, and many other activities provide occasions for direct public contact and for the creation of opportunities for better understandings through expression. The wise teacher senses these larger values in his teaching.

SOCIAL STUDIES

In educating for good citizenship, the public school leans heavily upon the social studies. Good citizenship is not only something to be learned. The teacher of citizenship is successful to the degree that his work is reflected in the conduct of his pupils.

Many social-studies activities touch the community. The historical sites of the community offer excellent teaching materials. The community's civic problems create admirable problems for classroom discussion. Elections, special days, birthdays, civic occasions, governmental activities,

and many community affairs offer many possibilities for the study of social relationships. Community leaders come into the school to discuss civic affairs. Current events should not go by unnoticed. The city newspapers can be brought into the school and happenings observed. There are many other such opportunities which may be utilized to foster good citizenship. There is no curricular carry-over quite as potentially fruitful in community life as the social studies. Many teachers of the social studies are widely aware of these opportunities.

COMMERCIAL SUBJECTS

The subjects of the commercial curriculum offer significant opportunities for community contacts. The interests of the businessmen of the community are closely allied with those of the commercial department, since these graduates will eventually find places in the business world. Moreover, the success of the commercial department is directly measured by the success of these pupils, the evaluation being immediate.

Specifically, there are many direct contacts with the community. Often the commercial department maintains a service for the school and the community through such direct activities of pupils as letter-writing, mimeographic, stenographic, and clerical services. Part-time work is often made available by placement services, maintained through direct contacts with business firms. As a part of their training pupils can visit stores and offices and be addressed by business officials. Some business firms can furnish equipment for teaching purposes and send employees to demonstrate its use. Advertising matter which finds its way into the schools can be evaluated. Exhibits can be held and demonstrations conducted before civic groups. In these and many other ways the commercial department offers strategic opportunities for better community understandings.

SCIENCE

The study of science offers abundant opportunities for better understanding through community contacts. Misconceptions about science and its teaching are being corrected, and eventually proper information will reach the homes through accurate teaching, observation, and experimentation. The "great gulf" existing between science and religion is finding well-built bridges here and there. The public is becoming more tolerant of the teachings and applications of science and more aware of the great contributions of science in medicine, industry, health, and in the more tangible evidences of home and community release from drudgery. The community itself forms a great laboratory for science study. Industries

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should be visited and their processes understood. All the great outdoors becomes a great laboratory when rightly used by the science teacher. Every opportunity should be taken to acquaint the general public with the benefits of science through talks, demonstrations, plays, and school exhibitions.

AGRICULTURE AND HOMEMAKING

Agriculture and homemaking as school subjects offer many possibilities for community contacts. Especially in less populated areas and rural communities, through the nature of the activities, many opportunities are available to the teacher and pupils to move out of the classroom and into the community. In the classroom are planned many of those activities and relationships which later find application in the home during the week, on Saturdays, and during vacation seasons. Teaching units should be prepared with these ends in view. Moreover, the community contacts which are thus made become one of the principal means by which a community evaluates this aspect of its educational program, especially when the community observes each activity with satisfaction.

Classes in agriculture can develop unique community relationships through study of specific farm operations. Trees are pruned, stock viewed and judged, farm tools and machinery repaired, and the crops in their various stages of development observed. One of the most significant social changes has been due to the application of science to farming. The agricultural fair has come to have considerable meaning for many communities, and in this agricultural study groups are vitally concerned. Demonstrations are staged and products are judged. Visits are made to more distant places under auspices of the Future Farmers of America, the 4H Club, and similar organizations. Summer projects add to individual and group interest. Banquets are held. The *Farm and Home Hour* on the radio is made a part of the school program.

Classes in home making offer similar opportunities for girls for community contacts. In fact there is perhaps no school subject in which the knowledges, skills, and attitudes developed can find such immediate home application. Homemaking is an art as well as a science, and to find realization it must be applied. The uplift of home and community living is thus made a direct outcome. Since nearly all girls will eventually become homemakers, they should profit by a program in which their experiences are direct rather than vicarious.

Many other activities touch the community directly. Some of these are cooperative purchasing and selling, participation in community

events, beautification of the school and community, activities with the county agent, news reporting, adult classes, assisting farmers in grading seed, planting, and harvesting, and many others varying with the community, its people, and the season of the year.

COMMUNITY CONTACTS THROUGH PUPIL ACTIVITIES

There are many significant occasions growing out of the program of pupil activities on which the community is made aware of the program of the school. In fact, many schools are better known through these activities than through the academic program. Pupil activities have grown significantly in number and influence within recent years. Unfortunately, they have grown up as "*extracurricular*" and have not as yet been completely integrated in the educational program. Some activities, such as athletics, require time and attention out of all proportion to their value and often bring discredit and notoriety to the school and its program. On the other hand, pupil activities enable boys and girls to take renewed interest in their education and therefore remain in school for a longer period.

FORMS

Pupil activities take many forms. These may be classified as follows: (1) student government organizations, (2) honorary and scholastic societies, (3) school service organizations, such as safety patrols, (4) club activities, having to do with social, moral, leadership, etiquette, and guidance activities, (5) big-brother and big-sister groups, (6) Hi-Y activities, (7) clubs related to the school subjects, such as science and journalism, (8) camp cookery, (9) bird and flower clubs, (10) organizations related to the school paper and annual, (11) literary, dramatics, and debating clubs, (12) organizations centering around music, art, books, and home decoration, (13) hobby clubs, which include a wide variety of interests, and (14) athletics. Possibly the assembly activities might be included.

INTERESTS

By means of pupil participation in these activities, educational values and objectives are being realized which could perhaps be achieved in no other way. The pupils gain a wide variety of experiences. Social values gained through activities are considerable, and wide opportunities exist for leadership and followership training. Individual and group responsibility characterizes activity administration. Many pupils appear to be

influenced through them to a larger extent than through the academic program.

CONTACT WITH COMMUNITY

The administration of the activity program touches the home and the community at many points. Many of these contacts have been reviewed in Chapter 9 with reference to specific activities. In summary, the following would appear significant: (1) appearance of pupils before the public in athletics, school band, and dramatics; (2) pupil decisions regarding other pupils which may affect the home, as in student-council discipline; (3) extension of leadership training into community activities; (4) demand for home and community financial support, since many of these activities are supported by the pupils and their parents; (5) mass attendance at certain performances; (6) interpretation of the school's program through activities; (7) participation of pupils through activities in such community affairs as parades, picnics, and parent-teacher association meetings; and (8) determining community attitudes toward public education through journalistic and other activities.

Since all too often the school rises and falls in the public's judgment by the success or failure of its activities, it is important that they be properly administered as an integral part of the educational program. Care should be taken that the following impediments which concern the community be removed: (1) too great emphasis on the activity program or any part of it; (2) evils which have become associated with them, such as gambling in connection with athletics; (3) loss of control by school authorities; (4) pupil neglect of their studies for these activities; (5) excessive cost to parents for dues, fees, and other expenses, especially to those of low income; (6) evening affairs which keep pupils out at unreasonable hours; (7) improperly chaperoned affairs with resulting family and public concern; (8) activity schedules which require pupils to be away from home when needed by parents for home chores; (9) excessive individual pupil load which, together with home and community responsibilities, makes too great a drain on a pupil's physical capacity.

FINANCIAL CONSIDERATIONS

The phenomenal growth of the pupil activity movement has been accompanied by problems in financing them. Huge sums are collected from many sources, and accounts are kept which have no regular place in the school accounting system. Every game, debate, entertainment, play, lecture, class dance, and publication has its own sale of tickets or drive for funds. There are fees, dues, assessments, sales, tag days, carnivals, donations, and collections. Some activities are heavy revenue producers; others

must be supported by better-paying activities or out of public funds. Parents are constantly called upon to contribute to this and that activity, with per pupil estimates up to \$150 or more per year.⁴ Unfortunately, many boards of education have not yet been convinced that they should support these activities out of public funds; others see in athletics, for example, an additional revenue producer.

Pupil activities should be evaluated by all concerned in terms of their contribution to the *total educational program* and the growth and development of all the pupils. It is appropriate to suggest that the public entertainment features should be abolished, that fees, dues, and assessments be gradually abolished, and that activities be supported, as they are found useful, out of public funds.⁵

CONTENT IN THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM HAVING COMMUNITY SIGNIFICANCE

Stratmeyer⁶ has pointed to the complexity of modern social living and the need to study the scope of persistent life situations in everyday living in (1) the home, as a member of a family, (2) the community, as a participating member, (3) work, as a member of an occupational group, (4) leisure time, with its many activities, and (5) spiritual activities. Recognition of this need has brought about a new emphasis in the school program and procedures, some of which have been pointed out in previous sections. In this section, several additional examples of newer areas of study and experience will be discussed.⁷

SAFETY EDUCATION

The hazards of modern living have caused the public school to give concern to safety as a factor in self-preservation and enrichment of life. The objectives of safety education would appear to be (1) to prevent accidents and save lives by developing attitudes necessary thereto, imparting useful knowledge and developing habits and skills which help in safeguarding one's self and others; and (2) to fuse these elements into a discipline important in itself as a means of effective citizenship.⁷

Safety education touches the home and community at the following

⁴ "How to Conduct the Participation in Extra-class Activity Study," *Bulletin No. 5, Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program* (May 1949).

⁵ See J. B. Edmonson, Joseph Roemer, and Francis L. Bacon, *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School* (Macmillan Co., 1941), pp. 350-352, for a list of 30 criteria for evaluating a program of activities.

⁶ Stratmeyer, *et al.*, *op. cit.*, Chap. V.

⁷ "Safety Education," *Eighteenth Yearbook*, American Association of School Administration (National Education Association, 1940), p. 47.

points: (1) pupil organizations, such as safety patrols, safety councils, and first-aid groups; (2) driver education; (3) safety devices such as signs and street lights; (4) prevention of accidents in the home; (5) elimination of hazards connected with fire, machines, shops and laboratories, holidays, plants, animals, insects, public conveyances, and firearms; and (6) school-bus transportation.

SCHOOL CAMPS

Opportunities to extend the school program beyond the school walls into the community include the school camp. Although the camp for youth has been in operation under private auspices for many years, camps operated under public auspices by schools, municipalities, and social agencies have grown in number. In 1941 the State of New York authorized school boards to purchase sites and spend school funds for camps. The State of Michigan has made great progress in establishing school camps.

School camps for boys and girls should have a larger place in a modern school program. They serve the following purposes: (1) physical fitness, (2) recreation and outdoor living, (3) character building, (4) scholastic readjustment, (5) work experience, and (6) citizenship training. They should be an integral part of the public-school system, wholly or partly supported out of local funds supplemented by state and federal funds. Smaller districts can pool their resources with other districts in their establishment, perhaps on a regional or county basis. This may become one means of establishing public education on an all-year basis.

WORK EXPERIENCE

Since vocational choice and occupational training are part of the education of all youth, work experience has come into the schools as a part of the educational program. In formal programs the pupil divides his time between attendance at classes and work outside the school, with or without compensation, examples being in agriculture, trades, and commercial establishments. Informally pupils can gain much valuable work experience after school and during vacations. On the community's part, cooperating employees should understand the school's part in the program and plan the work experience as a learning situation without undue regard for its productivity.

SEX AND MARRIAGE EDUCATION

Social and emotional adjustments of youth which must necessarily accompany the physical changes and urges at adolescence and thereafter

must be met with wise guidance and sympathetic response. There are many manifestations of adolescence which, though normal, create situations which may have repercussions unless properly handled. Such influences as commercialized amusements, obscene literature, suggestive motion pictures, and social enticements complicate the situation and make satisfactory adjustments difficult. Ineffective home life does not help the situation.

Several approaches which have been made to solve these problems require by their very nature the cooperation of many individuals and groups. (1) Wise guidance and counseling are needed. Rather than blame youth, we must seek to understand him. (2) Carefully planned social counterattractions provide a means of wholesome mingling. (3) Control and suppression of commercialized vice and unwholesome amusements demand community action.

Adequate sex education should be provided for all youth from reliable sources and properly presented. Youth earnestly desires to know about his body and its functions. Understanding parents, themselves adequately informed, with their prudery laid aside, should begin instruction in the home on levels of child comprehension and extend it through each stage of growth and development of his desire for knowledge. Every parent and every teacher should have a part in this education, although its medical and more technical aspects should be left to the school doctor, nurse, and biology teacher. Teachers of homemaking should be better prepared for their important task. To carry out this program will require initial preparation and tact. Education for marriage is an accompaniment of sex instruction. Youth must be taught an appreciation of the home as the fundamental unit of the social order. If the modern public school is to meet the needs of all youth, it must deviate from old academic standards and establish an educational program centering about life—its needs and its problems.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION

One of the most difficult, and as yet quite unsettled, problems in public education is that of religious instruction. We have noted that, as larger proportions of the children came into the public schools, more and more social responsibility was placed on the school. In providing for the harmonious development of all children in what may be described as *total education*, was not the school quite presumptuous in attempting such a program, even upon the insistence of the citizens? The extension of this ideal to include religious instruction either within the public schools or under its auspices has resulted in a controversy of large proportions and

has raised issues that pertain to constitutional rights and privileges, so jealously guarded by all Americans. Although freedom of religion is one of these rights, its exercise in the public schools, or through the use of public property, facilities, and personnel, has been brought under the closest scrutiny. The Supreme Court of the United States has forbidden the use of public-school buildings for religious instruction. Although "released time" religious instruction, in which the child leaves the school for required periods, is still practiced, it is open to question, and broad community and state policies are yet to be determined.⁸ Similar issues have been raised in such matters as requiring compulsory public-school attendance, compulsory vaccination, and compulsory flag salute.

TECHNIQUES AND MATERIALS SIGNIFICANT FOR THE COMMUNITY

In an earlier section it was pointed out that the educational program might be enriched through experiences reaching out into the community. In fact, a community-centered educational program will endeavor to relate all of its experiences to the living experiences of its boys and girls. There are many techniques which may be used to enrich the school's program through taking advantage of community resources. A few of these will be pointed out.

THE SCHOOL JOURNEY

Teaching through observation and direct contact may be traced in educational literature as early as Rousseau. Yet only recently has much attention been given to the school journey as a teaching technique. There is scarcely a subject in the curriculum which does not lend itself to the use of the school journey as a teaching aid. Formal, uninteresting classroom procedures are transformed into vital experiences when children are taken out of their seats into worlds of reality. Moreover, the feeling of living as a part of the experience makes the lessons well learned.

Reference has already been made to many types of school excursions which may be made into the community. The beauty of our homes, parks, streets, and countryside; the cultural life with its concert halls, libraries, and galleries; the recreational life of the parks and playgrounds; the business and industrial life, all offer many opportunities for direct study. Visits may well be made to such centers of civic activities as the post office, court house, fire and police departments, and city or borough council;

⁸ For an excellent discussion of the Supreme Court case involving these issues, consult Ralph D. Owen, "The McCollum Case" *Temple Law Quarterly*, 22 No. 2 (Oct. 1948).

to such welfare institutions as penal institutions, asylums, hospitals, and social agencies and societies; to such health agencies as clinics, sanitation facilities, water purification plants, and reservoirs; to such business and industrial sites as banks, stores, or great corporations, where processes may be observed; to transportation and communication agencies; and many others limited only by size, location, and availability or the purposes of the teaching situation. This is the life of the community, and the boys and girls should early learn to understand and appreciate it.

Subjects lending themselves to school-journey treatment may include politics, religion, social legislation, racial problems, policies of government, civic activities, labor problems, history, tradition and custom, consumer education, international relations, peace and war, economics, and many others.

The pupil's relation to that experience may be of three types:

1. *Observation*—the pupil makes a passive study or examination, as of the local post office or industrial operations.
2. *Participation*—the pupil joins in or cooperates with the social process, as in elections, parades, and hospital drives.
3. *Contribution*—original or creative activities are developed in order to seek an improvement of the activity studied, as in school bond drives, clean-up week, and local fairs.

Possibly no other teaching technique is available to bring about better understandings with the community than the school journey.

VOCATIONAL-GUIDANCE CONFERENCES

Helping the youth to adjust himself to his environment through guidance is now assuming its rightful place as an educational function. A complicated society with its many institutions, vocational possibilities, and widely varying adjustments of all kinds to make, obviously needs guidance. There are many opportunities to accomplish these purposes within the school itself, but school officials are recognizing the greater opportunities for such adjustments when those in the community who are able and willing to do so assist in the process.

One of the means for accomplishing this purpose is the vocational-guidance conference. Usually held under the auspices of the public school, but occasionally directed by an organization such as the Rotary or Kiwanis Club, individual and group conferences are held with boys and girls interested in learning about specific occupations and making a proper life choice. These vocations are discussed by community representatives who explain the nature of the occupation and answer numerous questions.

The vocational list discussed should include those prevalent in the

community and which the boys and girls are likely to enter. Where it is not feasible to have the occupational representatives visit the school, boys and girls may be encouraged to discuss their occupational future with citizens at their places of business or in their homes.

Other means of assisting the pupil to choose a career wisely are visits to community industrial plants, businesses, and professions in operation. Community members connected with business, industry, government, and the professions may be visited or interviewed by individual pupils or by groups. Not only is the pupil assisted in making his choice wisely, but he thereby learns more of his community as a young citizen. Then, too, the community learns more of the school and its needs, as well as the boys and girls and their problems. A placement service under competent school direction can make an inventory of available vocational opportunities in each community, and assist older boys and girls to become adjusted in gainful occupations as they become ready to enter upon them.

TEACHING CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES

Social changes bring with them problems concerning many phases of human affairs in which the forces of change clash with the forces of conservatism and tradition. Examples of these are racial questions, war and pacifism, political theories, evolution, sex education, marriage and divorce, temperance and morals, religious questions, capital and labor, control and use of natural resources, social security, and social legislation of all kinds. There are many others involved in community living which the rising generation must face. A decision must be reached as to their discussion and inclusion within the framework of the educational program.

It would be trite to remark that communities have been divided over these issues. Suppression of discussion in the public schools is not the solution. Pupils must be taught to face their problems and issues fully and frankly in the light of full calm discussion under competent leadership, always with the earnest desire to seek the truth at all times. Naturally communities will vary in their attitudes on these issues and their willingness to have them discussed in the public schools. The schools must recognize these community attitudes, and be prepared to present issues in their proper settings. Probably the best approach is to present the issue when it arises in the school or community—an impending strike or election, for example. It is for these reasons that freedom of speech must be preserved for the teaching profession, all teachers being fully protected in exercising this right.⁹

⁹ For a good discussion of this problem, see Reeder, *The Fundamentals of School Administration*, pp. 625-630.

TEXTBOOKS

The typical teacher follows the textbook closely, almost exclusively. It determines pretty much what is taught and the order of presentation of the subject matter. Pupils are assigned specific pages and chapters and recite according to its content. Although it is important in teaching, resourceful teachers are placing less emphasis on the textbook and using many other resources and materials, such as have been indicated above.

The textbook makes contact with the community at several points. There is the question of distributing textbooks free to the student. Although most states require free textbooks for all pupils, there are states and school systems where the pupils and their parents must provide for their purchase or rental. Textbooks may be provided free in the elementary schools but not in the secondary. This means that some children may be denied books because of inability of parents to pay for them, or may even leave school on this account. There is great variation among communities in the quality and recency of textbooks. Textbooks discarded by more favored communities have been rebound and distributed for use in less favored school systems. Textbooks are often written to fit specific geographical sections and racial groups. Pressure groups such as the American Legion, Daughters of the American Revolution, and fraternal orders have taken sharp issue with textbook statements concerning such controversies as communism, leftist tendencies, economic theories, and social experiments. Certain textbooks have been banned and teachers criticized. School officials are occasionally influenced by book publishers to recommend adoption of certain books, or accept offerings of value for their influence. This produces a sharp community reaction when exposed.

Textbooks are the principal materials of instruction in most schools. They include the basic content of the subject being studied. This material should be presented honestly and sincerely with strict regard for the truth. Pressures exerted in any other direction are hardly in line with sound educational objectives. It should be the responsibility of the schools to use materials and instruction best serving this end.

COMMUNITY PROBLEMS

In every community there are problems which affect youth and with which both the school and the community must deal. Most of them grow out of social and economic conditions and perhaps out of laxity on the part of the parents and community. Two of these problems will be discussed as they affect the schools.

SECRET SOCIETIES

Secret societies for youth, usually spoken of as fraternities and sororities, differ from common forms of social activities in the following characteristics: secrecy, exclusiveness, snobbishness, and freedom from or evasion of effective school supervision and control. Their perpetuation is based on *decision of the membership* rather than *freedom of choice* of the individual desiring admission. Secret societies found their way into the public schools about 1876. By about 1900, restrictions began to be placed on them, and in 1905 they were condemned by resolution of the National Education Association. In spite of state laws prohibiting or limiting them and general school and community disapproval, they have persisted in many public schools.¹⁰

School authorities are generally agreed that secret societies have no place in a pupil activity program in the public schools. They present serious administrative problems and any action toward them is hazardous without the full cooperation of the school board, student body, parents, and community. Perhaps the biggest charge against them, that they are undemocratic, can be met by the school only through substitution of democratic activities geared to desirable educational objectives. In the last analysis, the parents themselves hold the key to the situation. By sensible and judicious cooperation, secret societies can be gradually maneuvered into inaction and eventual oblivion.

CRIME AND JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

The cost of crime is estimated at two to fifteen billion dollars annually. One might compare these figures to the nearly three billion dollars expended annually for education itself. Moreover, the increasing cost for caring for criminals and for juvenile delinquents, who may later develop into criminals, is at the same time decreasing funds for education. A delinquent child costs the taxpayer three times as much annually as a pupil in our public schools. These facts would seem to indicate that public education must bear a fair share of the blame, since the majority of new offenders are in their late teens or their early twenties, and an insufficient emphasis is being placed, and insufficient funds expended, upon education as a social institution for society's preservation. In the last analysis, however, society itself must accept the responsibility and strengthen its instructions which pertain to the development of character in childhood and youth.

¹⁰ For a more detailed account of secret societies in the public schools, see Yeager, *Administration and the Pupil*, pp. 357-359.

The extent of juvenile delinquency may be ascertained from the fact that about 2 percent of all children have unusually severe behavior problems, that 80 percent of this group became delinquent, and that 80 percent of juvenile delinquents become criminals. About 1 percent of all children 10 to 16 years of age pass through the juvenile courts yearly. Factors contributing to delinquency which bear directly on the community are: (1) population change, (2) bad housing, (3) social indifference, (4) foreign birth, (5) tuberculosis, (6) adult crime, and (7) mental disorders. These stem out of some form of social disorganization. Truancy of a school pupil, unless checked promptly, is usually a clear indication of developing delinquency. Causes may be personal or social. Poor parental supervision because of broken homes or unhealthy home life is usually contributory.

Education has a decidedly favorable effect in reducing delinquency, especially if the problem child can be retained in a desirable school environment under proper educational direction. Cooperation with the many community agencies who are attempting to reduce delinquency and improve the environmental conditions of delinquent children is of inestimable value. Cooperation with the home is of utmost importance, especially where parents are able, if they will, to do something for the child. Where they are not, the help of probation officers, the courts, and institutional and other agencies is useful. Trained social workers are bridging these gaps in a remarkable manner. Removal to such environments as camps, rural areas, new homes, and other vocations is saving many a child. Psychological clinics should be given every support.

Many cities are organizing community institutions and the courts into a plan of juvenile-delinquency prevention and treatment. These try to co-ordinate the home and the school by establishing research bureaus to study child behavior, to improve school and classroom situations, and to cooperate with all agencies and institutions dealing with the problem. Recreational facilities are being provided. Special consideration is being given in the school program to the needs and deficiencies of delinquents. Delinquency in school attendance is being corrected with a greater degree of humanity. Every effort is made to adjust the child so that a healthy, happy, efficient individual may eventually emerge to take his proper place in society.

In those instances where, as wards of the court, youth are detained under court control, the public-school authorities cooperate closely. The school usually has a representative at hearings. Every effort should be made to return the child to a normal home and school situation as soon as possible.

COMMUNITY INTEREST IN IMPROVING THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

The modern educational program must have for its major purpose a concern for the welfare of each pupil and all the pupils as they face the problems of living in a complex social world. To this end there must be an integration of the total resources and experiences of the school and the community in the interest of developing a balanced program which will include attention to the physical, mental, moral, social, emotional, and spiritual aspects of the child's personality.

There is a growing sensitivity on the part of the home and the community to the educational program of the school. There is a feeling of dissatisfaction as to its adequacy and as to the results obtained. Many business firms find that graduates fail to measure up to expectations in basic skills, motives, and ideals.

A larger spread of responsibility should characterize the development of the educational program. Although the program is fundamentally the responsibility of the school, there are many ways in which the community can have a part in its construction and constant revision. The following activities are suggested:

1. A careful study of the community and its needs, the homes, business, industries, resources, ideals, and attitudes.
2. A careful study of the homes and environment in which boys and girls live.
3. Invitation to parents to assist in studying needs and in planning the educational program through visits to the school, public discussions, parents' advisory councils.
4. School and community projects designed to study such cooperative media as libraries, industries, social organizations, and all other resources.
5. Utilization of community organizations already engaged or offering strategic services in developing the educational program, such as other schools, colleges, musical organizations, museums, and recreational facilities.
6. Dissemination of printed materials and other types of information designed to bring about public understanding of the educational program.
7. A public campaign designed to offset overstressed and harmful aspects of the educational program, of which the most outstanding is scholastic athletics.

EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND COOPERATIVE ACTION

Since a modern educational program is made up of all the experiences of childhood and youth, it is obvious that both the school and the community, represented by the homes, have a direct responsibility to provide, through cooperative action, sufficient and satisfying experiences. We have pointed out repeatedly that the school needs to understand the com-

munity, its people, its institutions, its resources, and its problems. The school should make an inventory of these and catalogue the specific contribution each can make to the educational program. Thus school and community become a great laboratory which sifts all experiences and evaluates them in educational program planning. Adults in the community can become potential teachers through sharing their abilities and skills and providing enriched experiences.

It is important to provide ways and means for cooperative action. Group dynamics, discussed in another part of this text, offers one means for bringing this about. Democratic skills can best be achieved through working together in the solution of common problems. Curriculum committees should have direct representation from the home and resource organizations. Through community councils, forums, recreation activities, and community activities, experiences having educational value can be utilized in order to achieve educational objectives and bring about desirable community living.

Numerous examples of cooperative procedures can be found in the educational literature. Special mention should be made of illustrations appearing in *Education for All American Children*,¹¹ which describes many experiments in cooperative curriculum development. The Southern Rural Life Conference has given thoughtful consideration to responsibilities of the rural school in the changing pattern of country life. Changing patterns in agriculture and industry, in health education and services, in religious life, and in education are emphasized.

The educational program must be so constructed and adapted as to fit all boys and girls to the kind of life they are going to live. To accomplish this end, the human and material resources of school and community will need to be used in close cooperation, constantly appraising the program and readapting it as the occasions require.

RELATIONS WITH OTHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

PRIVATE SCHOOLS

Private schools of one type or another may be found in many communities, principally in the larger school districts. Whether the purposes of these institutions be vocational, religious, college preparatory, progressive, or general in nature, there are always points of contact with the public

¹¹ *Education for All American Children* (Educational Policies Commission, 1948). *The School and the Changing Pattern of Country Life* (Report of the Southern Rural Life Conference, 1943). See also Stratemeyer, *op. cit.*, Chap. VIII.

schools. These contacts involve attendance, transfer of pupils, adjustments involving previous preparation, and professional relationships.

Complaints of many private schools seem to center around an indifference or even a hostile attitude on the part of the public-school authorities toward them. Quite often the public-school misfits find refuge in the private school. Private-school pupils feel that proper guidance was denied to them in the public schools, or that they were inadequately prepared along lines deemed desirable either by them or by their parents. On the other hand, public-school authorities declare the private-school curriculum too academic and the teachers uncertified. There may be some rivalries which can be traced to religion, race, forms of competition, or "high-hattedness."

Wealthier family groups dissatisfied with public-school conditions have established schools on a more "progressive" pattern. Here differences seem to center around mutual opposition to each other's educational philosophy. The whole progressive movement seems to have achieved far greater cooperation with the home and the community.

HIGH-SCHOOL—COLLEGE RELATIONS

With 15 percent of the country's high-school graduates ultimately finding their way into college, the need of adequate relations with higher institutions of learning is apparent. Indeed, this percentage is considerably higher in many communities—as much as 70 percent in college towns. Parents then become vitally concerned in the higher education of the child. Their child's success or failure in college is often directly attributed to the secondary school.

Institutions of higher education are frequently subjected to the criticism that they themselves are chiefly responsible for any gap that exists between high school and college because of the so-called inflexible standards and an unwillingness to introduce any change in traditional programs and procedures. In fact, high schools blame the colleges for the local school's "academic mindedness." Especially where a large percentage of graduates go to college, if the colleges are not blamed, it is said that parents insist on an academic high school preparation so that their children "can get into college."

There is need for a much better understanding between the public schools and the colleges, and in this the community is vitally concerned. Some of the striking evidences of this need are: (1) high student mortality, (2) difficulties of transition from high school to college, (3) lack of proper understanding of the purposes of the college, (4) rigid entrance requirements, especially where examinations are concerned or where a particular

class graduating position is demanded, (5) college recruiting practices, and (6) failure of the public school authorities to throw off the so-called "domination of the college."

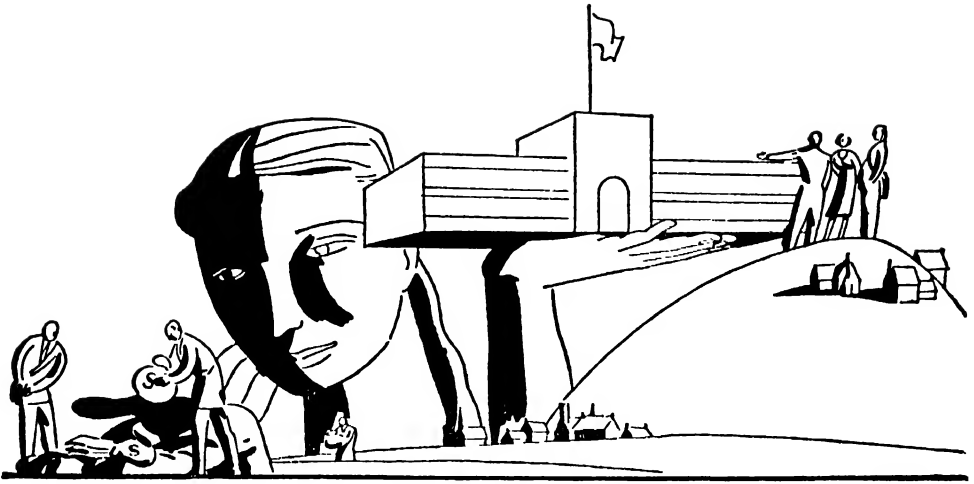
Much is being done to create a better understanding in regard to these needs. College entrance requirements are being gradually relaxed. As a result public-school authorities are attempting a long delayed reorganization of the secondary-school program. Through publications, interviews with students, high school assembly talks, proper student aids, conferences with school men, addresses before parent-teacher associations and service clubs, and in many other ways better relations are being established.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Review the purposes of education in the light of sound curriculum construction.
2. Make a study of selected school districts in which the community has assisted in planning the educational program.
3. Make a study of the resources of a selected community which may be useful in an educational program.
4. Develop a vocational-guidance conference for a selected school system.
5. Investigate plans developed in several communities to deal with youth problems and juvenile delinquency. How can the public school assist?
6. What significant opportunities for community contacts can be developed in the teaching of (1) mathematics, (2) foreign languages, (3) fine arts, (4) other subjects?
7. To what extent is the selection of textbooks a community concern?
8. What steps should be taken to eliminate the financial problems associated with pupil activities?
9. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the following as an integral part of the public-school system: (a) school camps, (b) work experience?
10. Make a study of high-school-college relations in three selected districts along lines suggested in the chapter.

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CHAPTER 12

The Support and Appraisal of Public Education

THE SUPERINTENDENT of schools had charge of the educational program at the Rotary Club. He thought that it would be an excellent opportunity to present to the business and professional leaders of Allison City some pertinent facts about their schools, especially school expenditures. He was aware that there were many who believed that taxes were too high and that available school funds could be spent more economically. He worked hard on his address, and as he rose to speak, he felt a certain pride and confidence in the schools, and especially in his own accomplishment. Several school board members were present and some visiting school men from neighboring committees.

"Allison City can be proud of its schools," he began. "We have an excellent and well paid group of teachers. Our budget is carefully planned in terms of our educational program, and well managed by a civic-minded board of education. Yet good schools cost money, and we have far to go before it can be said that Allison City's schools rank with the best in the state." Thereupon he distributed copies of the pamphlet given out at the

parent-teacher association, outlined the needs of the schools, and gave some figures as to what such a program might cost.

After his address, several questions were asked from the floor. "Why doesn't the school board publish its budget in the daily paper?" "Why not have a school survey, such as the one in Central City, so that the citizens might have a more complete understanding of the needs of the schools?" "Would the people vote favorably on a school bond issue for a new high school if it was found necessary to borrow money?" "Why doesn't the state appropriate more money for the local schools?"

The superintendent answered these questions in turn, although he knew that there were always those who would not be satisfied with his answers. He gathered from the applause that he had the support of most of the members. He said that he would propose a school survey at the next meeting of the school board, to be conducted by the university.

John Brown went home feeling better about the tax situation than ever before. "Really," he told Mary, his wife, "I never realized before just how little we are paying when we consider what we are getting in the way of education for our children." Mary agreed. She was glad that John had gone to Rotary that day.



Historically, the establishment of the public schools has been a community project, and their support borne largely by the people of each community. Before the time of public taxation, various devices such as land endowments, lotteries, direct local appropriations, gifts, licenses, taxes, and rate-bills were introduced in order to supplement the fees and gifts of the parents. Bank taxes were an important source of income for schools between 1825 and 1860. With the establishment of a state-mandated system of public education, local communities were directed to levy a local tax for its support on all taxables in the community.¹ Funds obtained from these sources soon became inadequate because of growing demands on public education and because of the gross educational inequalities resulting from the unequal distribution of supporting ability. It soon became evident that a broader basis of school support was necessary if education was to fulfill its functions in a growing democracy. With the watchword "The wealth of the state must educate all the children of the state," there gradually emerged through the years a growing body of state legislation recognizing the principle of state support for public

¹ The reader will find an interesting account of the "battle for free schools" in E. P. Cubberley, *The History of Education* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920), Chap. XXVI.

education.² Cubberley summarizes it well when he says, "The right to tax for support, and to compel local taxation was the key to the whole state system of education."³

This chapter will present the principles of community support of education characteristic of most school districts in the United States. Support will be discussed in relation to efficient management. Proper methods of interpreting school finance to the public are essential to liberal support in which complete confidence is reposed in those who administer the funds. School funds must be safeguarded. The chapter includes a discussion of matters pertaining to school campaigns, school surveys, and other means of supporting and appraising the schools.

HOW PUBLIC EDUCATION IS SUPPORTED

MEASURES

The best measure of the potential educational load in a state is the proportion of the total population in the age group from five to seventeen years inclusive. Unless otherwise excused, all children of this age group should be in school; and it is the education of this group that the citizens of a state have an obligation to support. The ratio of such children to the total population varies widely among the several states. For example, Mississippi, deficient in economic resources, supports 25 percent of its total population in its public schools, whereas such New England states as Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, with more ability to pay for support, have less than half that percentage of children in the public schools.⁴

Wealth and income constitute the economic basis of support for all phases of government. In states where the average level of income is high, the people can devote more dollars to the support of governmental functions. One valid measure of a state's ability to support education is the income per capita. Considering this factor along with the number of children in a state to be educated, one can get a measure of the total educational load in relation to the ability of the people to pay for that service.

² In *Education in the Forty-eight States* (The Council of State Governments, 1949) the reader will find a recent account of wide variations in state support of education.

³ *Op. cit.*, p. 679.

⁴ For a study of these wide variations consult "Statistics of State School Systems," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1945-1946* (U. S. Office of Education), Chap. 2, Table 15; also *ibid.*, 1947-1948, Chap. 2.

Still another measure of the educational service is the effort citizens of a state make in relation to their ability to support their educational program. This can be measured in terms of the percentage of income which is devoted to the public schools. Naturally, there is a great range in this respect, not among the states but also among districts in the same state. In considering the willingness of citizens to support their schools, one should take into account demands made upon them for other governmental services, which at times may be considerable. Still other measures are amounts paid in current expenses, especially teachers' salaries, amounts of indebtedness for school buildings and equipment, and expenditures for such items as textbooks, transportation, recreation, and vocational education. Citizens who keep their children in school for longer periods of time have given them greater advantages over those who remove them early for remunerative labor or other reasons.

TRANSITION TO STATE SUPPORT

Not long ago practically all funds for the support of schools were derived from real property. Other types of wealth and income are coming into general use for support of the local educational program. However, the property tax, with all of its inequalities of assessment, rates, etc., is still the principal source of local school revenue in most states. On the other hand, most states have diligently sought relief from this source of support and have turned to state sources as offering wider opportunities to support education by means of more uniform taxes derived from the wealth of the people of the state. Such sources of support include the state income tax, sales tax, severance taxes, as on minerals, and permanent school fund income. Where state support has increased, there is a tendency to limit the amount to be raised locally through property taxes, and an attempt to remove the inequalities which exist in determining sound values upon which this is collected. In this there is only partial success.

QUALITY OF EDUCATIONAL SERVICE

One other fact should be indicated in discussing school support—namely, an adequate measure of educational need. This refers not only to the number of children to be educated, but to the kind and quality of education provided. Good teachers should be employed and paid good salaries. Proper facilities, as well as adequate housing, must be provided. In other words, the quality of educational service is even more important than the quantity. The best measure of a community's respect for its childhood is in the quality of educational service provided.

COMMUNITY INTEREST IN SCHOOL SUPPORT AND EFFICIENT MANAGEMENT

In view of the direct interest which the citizens of a community have in the schools through their taxes, it is natural that every effort should be made to acquaint them with the school's financial situation. They are entitled to know how the money is raised, how it is spent, what services it purchases, and how economically it is managed. They are entitled to have some part in determining the nature of the school program. When new buildings are built and extraordinary expenditures are necessary, the citizens may be called upon to express a choice in regard to these expenditures. They may be called upon to express a choice in regard to election of membership in the board, in whose election some determination of financial policy may be the issue.

The efficient financial management of the public-school enterprise should be the concern of every citizen. Citizens should demand sound budgetary procedures, safeguarding of public funds, adequate salary schedules, and wise administration as to construction, maintenance, and repairs of school buildings and purchase of supplies and equipment.

The following principles have been found helpful in the economical support of public education:

1. Education is a social function of such major importance as to require continuous financial support from public sources.

2. If education is to be an effective instrument in developing good citizens, it must be given financial support adequate for this purpose. Citizens should demand good schools and be willing to support them adequately.

3. Economy is well established as an inseparable characteristic of efficiency in educational administration.

4. The allocation of specific amounts for particular areas of the educational program should be made by the board of education with the advice of the professional staff, and in accordance with recommended standards.

5. When retrenchment in government is necessary, education should be expected to take only its fair share of curtailment as determined by the volume and urgency of public demands for all services.

6. Curtailment of educational functions should be considered always with the educational welfare of children as the basic criterion, and in the light of future plans and needs.

DEVELOPMENT OF CONFIDENCE

Adequate support of public education on the part of the citizens of any state or community is one of the best indications of community interest in education and a demand for good schools. Citizens should be familiar with the work that the public school is trying to do. They should possess a feeling of satisfaction as to the outcomes of their investment. For it must never be forgotten that the public schools belong to the people; they support them; their children attend them; and in the last analysis they must appraise the "products," who suffer from the mistakes of the school enterprise. Ownership of the public schools is held *in common*, not by any group or groups.

Desirable school-community relations in regard to school expenditures require the establishment of confidence on the part of the people of that community toward those responsible for the fiscal affairs of a school system. Not only should the budgetary requirements of the law or of the state regulation as to publicity be adhered to, but the school authorities should "go to the people" in these matters with pertinent information in language that they can understand. Facts regarding the costs of schools and their financial management should be placed before the public in bulletins, folders, circulars, the public press, and by means of charts, graphs, and readily understandable figures. In offering an explanation of the budget, the educational program of the school should be set forth, the school's standards in operation, or proposed, fully explained if the same or additional funds are requested, the ability of the community to meet the expenses shown, and the limitations of the law and such other facts as may be of public interest fully indicated.

THE SCHOOL BUDGET

PUBLIC CONCERN

The first prerequisite in good school administration is the development of a functional philosophy of education reflecting the state and its program and the needs of the boys and girls of the community. This philosophy determines the educational program, which becomes the basis upon which the school budget is prepared.⁵

⁵ See Chris A. DeYoung, *Budgeting in Public Schools* (published by the author, 1946), Chap. II, for an excellent discussion of the educational program in relation to the school budget.

Although the preparation, adoption, and administration of a school budget is a professional matter entrusted by law to the board of education and its administrative officers, there are certain aspects with which the public is definitely concerned. The laws of many states provide for the manner of its preparation and administration, for proper publication, for adoption in certain cities and states by the municipal authorities, for public hearings as to its provisions, for public approval as to fixing of the tax rate, and for limitations in regard to the expenditure of public funds for certain reasons or purposes. All of these provisions would appear to be attempts to repose certain measures of control of expenditures for public education in the people.

FACTORS IN INTERPRETING THE SCHOOL BUDGET TO THE PUBLIC

The members of the board should be fully informed as to the proposed budget. They should be thoroughly conversant with its provisions and fully aware of its implications concerning school policy and financial support. The administrative officer should make clear the educational program, state requirements, new facilities, increases and decreases in the budget, accounting terms, the policies affected or required, and such other information as will give the board an adequate basis for approval or modification.

During this period the public should be informed of the provisions and implications of the budget. The following means may be found helpful:

1. Newspaper publicity through copy for the press, articles, interviews with editors and reporters, and paid advertisements. Care should be taken that newspapers do not publicize a particular item or issue to the detriment of the whole document.

2. Public hearings—which may or may not be required by law or otherwise—should be adequately announced, with full and frank discussion provided.

3. Distribution of copies of budget to key citizens and groups, with requests for suggestions and encouraging their cooperation and support.

4. Written statements conveyed through pupils to the homes. These have been found helpful in obtaining support of parents.

5. Addresses to such organizations as service clubs and parent-teacher associations. Public support of a strong association is invaluable when financial issues arise.

6. Miscellaneous means, such as radio, motion pictures, conferences with parents, visitations, and the school's publications. Each child can be a channel for the flow of school information. Each teacher can be informed and can disseminate proper information.

ADVANTAGES OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN BUDGET PLANNING

Even in those communities where the voters are not required to approve budgets, there are many advantages in close public participation in school budgeting procedure. Greater confidence is engendered in school authorities if the citizens feel that budget planning is not a closed affair. The superintendent will need to defend his program against public scrutiny and charges of extravagance which are often sharper than school-board criticism. Thinking citizens can offer many constructive, practical suggestions concerning both program and economics. The promotion of such activities as budget padding or "log rolling" is not so likely to occur. Generally, citizens are conservative and may tend to curb an overly enthusiastic advancement of the educational program beyond the financial ability of the community. Above all, it is probably the best means to educate the people concerning the nature and needs of the educational program. School budgeting procedures offer excellent opportunities for group action.⁶

Procedures which have been outlined above can be utilized in presenting the public with information as to other fundamental matters. These may include such items as teachers' salaries and salary schedules, financial matter concerning pupil activities, capital improvements, maintenance costs, and comparative expenditures.

SAFEGUARDING SCHOOL FUNDS

The experience of some school districts in regard to losses of public-school funds has focused attention upon the necessity of providing adequate safeguards. Inadequate protective laws or regulations, local misuse of funds, careless selection of depositories, extravagance, and many other types of losses and mismanagement have caused the public to become more concerned in financial controls of public funds. Insistence upon an adequate, careful, and economical management of public funds should be accompanied by a careful audit by qualified persons. Audits should be taken seriously and findings made a matter of public record. Shortcomings in the business management should be pointed out and proper remedies suggested. Misfeasance in public office ought not to be lightly condoned. Such supervision may very well become the responsibility of parent-teacher associations and civic groups as well as individual citizens of the community.

⁶ Henry H. Linn, *Practical School Economics* (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934), p. 31.

NATURE OF THE PUBLIC CONCERN IN PUBLIC-SCHOOL FINANCIAL MATTERS

Since, in the last analysis, the public schools belong to the people, the public has a legitimate concern in public-school financial matters. This concern should have for its objective the maintenance of a sound and forward-looking educational program in each community. Since the teacher is the most important single factor in the education of childhood, parents should be interested in attracting and retaining the best teachers for their children. Teachers should be treated with respect. The community should be sufficiently interested in having them live within the community, as do its doctors, ministers, and lawyers. Some communities have provided residences for their teachers similar to those which churches provided for ministers. The citizens of the community should be interested in paying their teachers a sufficient salary to enable them to live respectably, improve their economic and social positions, educate their own children, and take a prominent part in civic affairs.

The community should be interested in the bonded and temporary indebtedness of their schools, the nature of the bonds, and dates of maturity, the sinking-fund accounts, interest paid, amount of tax levied for principal and interest, and what the total financial load is costing. It should be interested in the cost of its school buildings, their age and condition, type of construction, cost of repairs and maintenance, and proposed construction program. An annual inspection of all school buildings should be made to which the public is invited. More interest should be taken in pupil-activity funds in order to curb undesirable practices to be found in many communities.

There are many controls by means of which the public can gain information concerning its school finances and become assured of good management. The first of these are the legal safeguards, such as the budget and the audit. The second is the school survey. Through the school survey, school affairs can be examined rigorously and the results made available to the public. Perhaps the most helpful means is through the constant flow of vital information coming from the administrative offices, explaining matters of financial concern and inviting constructive suggestions. This procedure should be an essential feature of the school-community relations program.

One might conclude that, since education is of vital importance in the lives of citizens, the same interest should be taken in its fiscal affairs as in one's personal affairs, not only because education deals with the

parents' most cherished possession, the child, but because provision for education is a function of citizenship and absolutely necessary for the preservation of democracy. Let us repeat that the attitude of the public should be one of constructive suggestion, insisting constantly on a better and better school system.

SCHOOL CAMPAIGNS

NEED

There is need at times for an intensive campaign in order to obtain public support. Such campaigns may be conducted (1) to exceed local tax limitations imposed on the board for general or specific purposes; (2) to float bond issues for school land, buildings, and equipment; and (3) to enter into some financial arrangement such as with a local authority; and (4) for public welfare as extension of school services.

While some school officials become irked when they are required to present their financial program to the community and risk defeat, it is a wise provision in the law which requires these trustees of the people to submit to the "stockholders" a proposal designed in the interests of their own children, and for the support of which the people must assume direct responsibility. There are those who hold that intensive campaigns would be unnecessary if a suitable program of school-community relations would be properly administered. However, there is some justification for the campaign technique, in that it centers interest dramatically upon a single project. It welds the school personnel, including the pupils, into an active, cooperating group. It arouses in lay groups an interest hardly possible at other times. It imposes ultimate responsibility for these projects and their support where it belongs—with the citizens of the community.

PRINCIPLES IN THE MANAGEMENT OF SCHOOL CAMPAIGN

Several principles for the management of these campaigns are indicated below. These have been developed by Reeder⁷ and appear to have stood the test of experience.

1. Justification—make certain that the proposal requested is really needed, and can be justified and defended. Plan carefully and be sure that the project meets local and state regulations and is officially approved.

2. Legal details—attend to all legal details pertaining to the tax proposal and the election.

⁷ Ward G. Reeder, *Campaigns for School Taxes* (Macmillan Co., 1946), Chap. I.

9. Truth—tell the truth concerning all issues of the campaign.
10. Harmonize the material—make material presented clear and interesting.
11. Eligible voters—make certain that all eligible voters are approached.
12. Opposition—deal with any opposition in a fair manner.
13. Confidence in the school system—make sure that the project as well as the school itself enjoys the people's confidence.
14. Continuity—make the campaign part of a more lasting school-community relations program.
15. Previous campaigns—relate the campaign to any previous ones if necessary.
16. Record of campaign materials—keep a permanent file or scrapbook of school campaign materials and procedures.
17. Participation of school employees and pupils—while necessary to the campaign, the use of these personnel should not be overdone.
18. Threats—avoid threats or reprisals of any kind. Emphasize the advantages rather than the disadvantages. Avoid anger, obstinacy, and harsh words.

SIZE OF COMMUNITY

In larger cities, public support of expansion of school services may not be as dependent upon intensive campaigns, owing to better organized avenues of educational interpretation, great potential wealth, which permits expansion within the limits of current funds, wider borrowing limitations, diversion of school funds where needed, and more insistent public demands for good schools. Moreover, competition among cities has been a powerful stimulus not only to public education but to all municipal progress.

In the smaller town or city, or rural district, where educational interpretation is not highly organized, if at all, the need for intensive school campaigns has been found most necessary. School-community relations are unlikely to be as well organized. Funds are usually not available for expansion without an increased tax rate or increase in borrowing power of the school district, which must be publicly approved. Moreover, the influence of many individuals who do not desire good schools or any form of school service extension, especially if it involves increased school support, must often be overcome strategically or otherwise, through the medium of an intensive campaign.

THE CAMPAIGN IN ACTION

ORGANIZATION

Before any form of campaign is undertaken, the educational need should be firmly established as essential and defensible. Facts should be

collected carefully. The results of school surveys have often been used to good effect. Materials should be arranged and presented in a convincing manner and in a form and language that the general public⁸ can understand. The chairman and the committees should be selected with care, with duties of all concerned definitely outlined.

In a small community, the superintendent may be the organizing and directing head. In large communities, either the superintendent may serve or the chairman can be elected from among civic leaders, such as one experienced in directing publicity. Committees might include: (1) publicity, (2) speakers, (3) finance, (4) endorsement by key citizens, (5) school personnel.

MEANS

Attention should be centered on agencies and materials to be used. The following means may be used: (1) newspapers, (2) radio, (3) motion pictures, (4) illustrative materials, such as plans, pictures, charts, (5) pupils, (6) speakers, (7) organizations and groups, (8) key persons, (9) dinners, (10) public meetings, (11) churches, (12) parents and parent-teacher associations, (13) night schools, and (14) alumni of the school. Then there are such matters as slogans, hand bills, stuffers, ads, parades, banners, tags, and contests. Petitions may be found useful. Displays in downtown windows have brought good results. Care must be taken that the agencies and materials selected fit into a given situation and that the whole program is not overdone.

TIMING

Timing a school campaign is an important factor. With proper groundwork laid, the campaigns should "build up" gradually to the time of decision. Many superintendents prefer a campaign with a "bang." Care must be taken to avoid any "recoil" due to unforeseen circumstances, improper timing, or dilatory tactics on the part of uncompromising opponents. Facts truthfully and clearly presented will serve to win many a campaign battle. Resort to belittling of personalities should be studiously avoided. On the other hand, courting the interest and favor of key individuals and groups will usually assure favorable response.

ELECTION DAY

When election day arrives, a special effort should be made to get out the vote. To this end, telephone calls will help. Workers with automobiles can transport voters. Judicious use of the pupils is an effective means. In

⁸ The reader should review Chapter Seven with regard to the "publics" in a community.

all of this there should be a dignified approach, remembering that this is a democracy and every man and woman has the inalienable right to his own opinion and vote. Whatever the results, care should be taken to thank the voters.

TRANSITION TO A CONTINUOUS EDUCATIONAL INTERPRETATIVE PROGRAM

Wherever possible, intermittent, intensive, or periodic campaign publicity should give way to a continuous educational interpretative program based upon the needs of the school and its support. "Drives" and "high pressure" advertising may secure the desired immediate results, but the public may know little about the schools and their needs when the excitement of the campaign has subsided. Too often campaigns are built upon an emotional drive without the accompaniment of full understanding.

It is out of such intensive campaigns, if properly conducted, that a program of continuous educational interpretation can be built. There is a strategic opportunity to capitalize on an aroused community interest. Key citizens interested in the schools have been located and leadership discovered. There has been a testing of agencies which have proved successful. Then, too, organizations developed for this purpose become interested in "carrying on." Perhaps the community may be ready for a higher level of "cooperative endeavor," out of which may develop a community council determined to cope with other community problems affecting the interests of all the boys and girls. It is surprising what people can accomplish when they earnestly start working together for a common good.

Although good school men will strive wherever possible to set before the public the needs of the public school in programs of educational interpretation, there will probably remain many occasions where the intensive school campaign is both highly desirable and necessary. Community inertia needs to be overcome occasionally through some powerful stimulation, similar to that represented by the school campaign. The needs of the community for better school opportunities for children is the end sought, and the means used to secure that end must be properly adapted.

COMMUNITY APPRAISAL OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

Community interest in education is heightened when the general feeling prevails that the schools are "good." Such a term is used quite carelessly, often as an outcome of some incident such as winning a contest, a successful athletic season, a particular student's college success, or the "say so" of the superintendent and the teachers. These are hardly con-

clusive evidences of a "good" school, although they may be indicative of many good things in the schools. Appraisals should be objective and inclusive of the educational program as a whole.

The school survey is one of the most distinctive and energizing educational movements in its effects on education in general and the public schools in particular. Usually conducted by an outside disinterested group of experts, the survey collects and analyzes practical information about the schools and appraises the results in the light of known standards and expert judgment. The recommendations are made in the light of this information with both the school and the community in mind as the audience. Although surveys are usually local in character, they are becoming state-wide and nation-wide in scope.

POINTS OF CONTACT WITH THE PUBLIC

The public is definitely concerned with the initiation, progress, and outcomes of school surveys. Through proper public-relations media, the citizens should be kept informed during progressive stages, in order that desirable attitudes be developed and suspicious individuals or groups be reassured. Where effective measures have been taken toward this end, the electorate is usually more satisfied and responsive to the recommendations of the survey.

Public-school relations in regard to school surveys will be considered from three standpoints: (1) public relations as interpreted or evaluated by school surveys, (2) publicity given school surveys, and (3) the effects of school surveys upon public relations.

PUBLIC RELATIONS IN SCHOOL SURVEYS

Early surveys contain little information concerning policies, programs, and personnel associated with school-community relations—perhaps because there were none. As these programs were developed and studied through survey techniques, more and more stress began to be given to this function of school administration. At the same time, the survey procedure itself, as it progresses, involves many contacts with the public—members of the board, parent-teacher associations, key individuals, and service organizations.

PUBLICITY GIVEN SCHOOL SURVEYS

Information as to the progress of a school survey may reach the public in many ways. At the outset, the survey should be officially approved by the board of education. During its progress, there should be a public awareness—through newspaper articles, bulletins, contacts with public

officials, citizens and groups, addresses and reports before organizations, civic clubs, and parent-teacher associations, and by the examination of public records and other documents—that the school system is being examined.

Strayer⁹ vividly describes the plan for creating a favorable public opinion at the time of the Baltimore survey. He says in part:

Through the complete and hearty cooperation of the Superintendent and the Board of School Commissioners those responsible for the inquiry were placed in a most favorable position before the public. From the very beginning of the work plans were laid for acquainting the public with the findings of the survey. One of the most important methods employed in carrying the story to the public was the holding of monthly luncheons. These meetings were attended by the Mayor of the City, members of the Board of Estimate, the Board of School Commissioners, and by leaders in every important group throughout the city. A very careful list was made up in the superintendent's office and invitations were issued for subscriptions to a series of six luncheons. The largest dining space available in the city was filled to overflowing on each of these occasions. The newspapers gave splendid cooperation in reporting the discussions which took place.

Upon completion, the school survey usually appears in printed form. It is first presented to the board of education accompanied by an oral presentation, preferably by the survey director or his representative. Copies are usually sent to the newspapers and leading citizens. The findings and recommendations are given due publicity and discussion through editorials, circulars, and addresses before civic groups. Since school surveys are usually professional in form and language, it is important that such material as is presented to the public be placed before them in a manner best adapted to proper understanding, as in graphic or other visual forms, section by section, and in language adapted to the particular audience.

Effective publicity agents for the recommendations of school surveys are the teachers and the pupils. If both of these are taken into the confidence of the surveyors throughout the survey, a feeling of confidence will be established which will carry over into the classroom and to the home. Pupils and teachers will aid in developing the personal touch and support so needful in securing the proper reception of the survey results.

It is important to emphasize the use of concise summaries of survey results presented in address form before civic and other organizations of the community, not only by school and survey officials but by leading citizens. This plan also supplies a personal touch and is one of the best

⁹ National Education Association, *Addresses and Proceedings*, Vol. LXI (1923), p. 1017.

plans for survey publicity and discussion, in that citizens may ask questions and clarify misunderstood or perplexing problems. Here truly is a "meeting of minds."

SCHOOL SURVEYS AND SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

The effects of school surveys upon school-community relations should be felt in many ways. The survey should serve as an unbiased and official report on the schools to the people of a community by disinterested professional parties. Its authority and impartiality are usually accepted. Although survey recommendations may cause much discussion and adverse comment, the public usually recognizes that something must be done about them. Any excessive costs of the schools may become an embarrassing public problem, quite often the school authorities being on the defensive. School surveys present accurate financial data, giving to the public reliable comparative information as to the costs of their schools. After needed economies are made and inefficiencies corrected, increased support for schools usually results. Above all, it is important to point out that good schools, like good clothes, cost money, and the public must be given a choice in the matter. The school survey frequently serves as a means of arousing the community from any feeling of self-sufficiency. It calls attention to the needs of the schools for buildings, sites, and equipment. In fact, many surveys have been conducted primarily for this purpose. State wide surveys have served a similar purpose, bringing about needed legislation and shaping new educational ideals and policies. In local communities, new districts have been organized, inefficiencies adjusted, and school services, such as libraries, cafeterias, new curricula, summer schools, kindergartens, and playgrounds, extended.

As to the public, it is important to note several positive values and at the same time observe certain dangers. Although communities may be agreed as to the need for better educational services, they may sometimes become bitterly divided on the recommendations suggested, causing no end of trouble. Certain individuals and groups may read into certain recommendations for increased support selfish interests on the part of school authorities. As a result they may not only reject the recommendations but curtail existing services. Efficient superintendents have lost their positions and the political and personal complexion of school boards have changed. Many other equally dangerous situations may arise. When survey recommendations are not understood and when suspicion and jealousy arise, honest, progressive endeavors for school progress may become boomerangs.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

In view of the fact that school surveys usually involve a penetrating analysis of a school system and recommendations pertaining to fundamental reorganizations or changes, the interest and concern of a community are easy to appreciate. Moreover, in such instances, the people of any community should be solicitous of the procedures, findings, and recommendations of a school survey, since these relate to their own children. To that end close community contacts should be made throughout the survey's progress in order that the desirable objectives of the survey be achieved and the school system improved. The following conclusions and suggestions are offered with regard to public-relations aspects of school surveys:

1. All school surveys should be approved by the board of education and energetically supported by the school personnel within the limitations of its proper objectives.

2. The importance of adequate school-community relations in school survey procedure should be recognized. They should be thoroughly and properly organized and some one definitely delegated to administer them.

3. In order to reach all types of individuals and groups, survey relations should be adequately and properly presented by ways and means which make the survey project thoroughly understood.

4. The principal media for dissemination of publicity in regard to school surveys are: general circulation of printed reports or bulletins, local press (unit installments), the school press (and pupils), the civic organizations, by addresses by teachers, and parent-teacher associations. However, communities vary and should be studied for those types of public contacts found to be most helpful.

5. The place of teachers and pupils in school survey procedure as it relates to community relations should be recognized and their services suitably utilized.

6. The support of influential community individuals, groups, and organizations under proper survey leadership is essential. Public gatherings during which interested persons can question those in charge of survey progress inspire confidence and are recommended.

7. Proper publicity should be developed before, during, and after the survey. This emphasizes the importance of taking the public into survey confidence at all stages. There should be no delay in the publication of the report. At the same time, too great haste should be avoided in putting the recommendations into effect. The public pulse when overexerted may require rest stages for further effort.

There is probably no more significant approach to school and community planning for a program of educational services designed for all the children of a community than through support and appraisal. There

may be those citizens in any community who are so parsimonious by nature as to desire "cheapness" in education as in other things in life, but ultimately the desire for the best wins out, especially where childhood is concerned. John Dewey once expressed it in this manner,¹⁰ "What the best and wisest parent wants for his own child, that must the community want for all of its children. Any other ideal for our schools is narrow and unlovely; acted upon it destroys our democracy." The wise school administrator sets his sights high, and gradually brings his community up to these higher levels.

Lay participation in educational planning based on adequate understanding is most essential for a long-range program of school improvement. Given a program that is sound, forward looking, and defensible, the citizens will rally to its support, even though the cost seems excessive at the moment and the funds not yet in sight. To this end education must always be considered as an investment and not as an expenditure.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Compare educational support in your state with that in (1) the five best states, (2) the five poorest states. Account for any factors in regard to that support.
2. Account for public interest in education in terms of its *cost* rather than in terms of the *program*.
3. Set up a plan for presenting the school budget to (1) the school board, (2) the parent-teacher association, (3) the service club, (4) other groups.
4. To what extent have you observed that public demands for various forms of financial retrenchments have been fostered by adverse attitudes toward public education? How can such adverse attitudes be overcome?
5. What limitations might be cited in regard to public knowledge of the school's financial affairs, as for example understanding a budget?
6. Should full publicity be given to all financial aspects of high-school athletics? What is your attitude towards community participation in the financial control of athletics?
7. Compare values of periodic publicity with a continuous program as it relates to school campaigns.
8. Study a successful school building campaign. What steps were used? Collect the materials used and report.
9. Comment on Reeder's principles of campaign management.
10. Enumerate several ways in which a community can appraise its schools other than by the school survey.
11. Compare the suggestions in regard to public-relations aspects of school surveys with those of school campaigns.

¹⁰ John Dewey, *School and Society* (University of Chicago Press, 1900), p. 19.

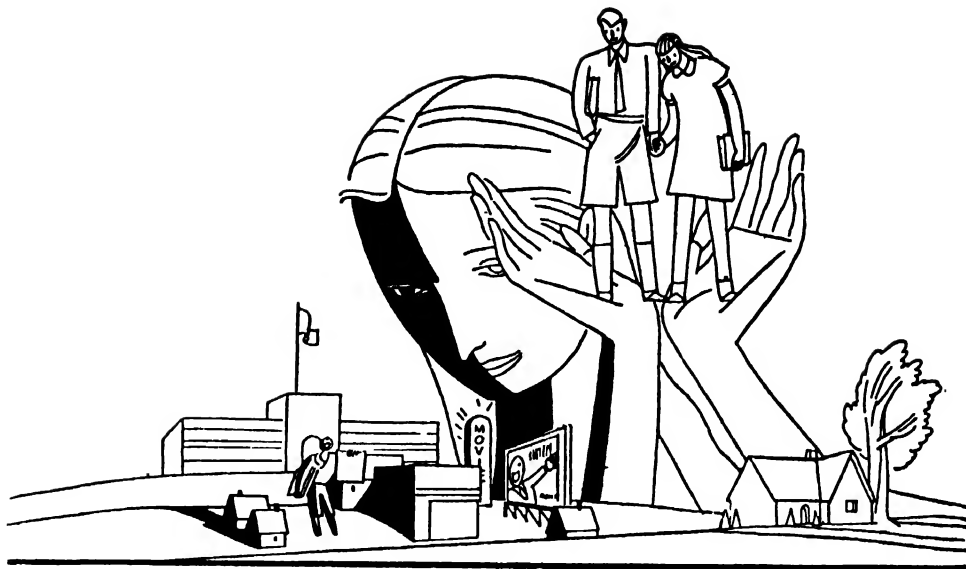
12. Under what conditions would it be advisable or inadvisable for the superintendent of schools to act as director of school campaigns?
13. Cite instances in which school survey reports and recommendations have been favorably received; adversely received.

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PART FOUR

**COOPERATING AGENCIES IN
THE COMMUNITY**



CHAPTER 13

Community Agencies and Materials

It was Friday evening. Susan and John hurried through their dinner so that they could go to the early show. Several of their friends were going. "The King's Cavalier" was being shown at one of the local theaters. Mr. Thompson, the history teacher, had suggested that the pupils might find it interesting because of its historical significance. In addition it was in technicolor.

Although John and Mary Brown permitted their children to attend the movies about once a week, they had always been careful as to their selection. Mary usually referred to the *Parents' Guide* for a rating of movies. A speaker at a meeting of the parent-teacher association last winter had said that motion pictures influenced young people a great deal and had suggested that each community should insist on better movies for its children. The association had appointed a committee to consider the matter. Mary wondered when they were going to report.

One of the significant characteristics of community living is the nature and influence of its agencies and resources designed principally as a means of communication—the public press, motion pictures, radio, television, and others. These have been developed as a means of expression for modern society and a contribution to the happiness and well-being of its members. These agencies are powerful influences in shaping ideas and attitudes, especially among youth. Within the broader meaning of education, they have considerable educational significance. With most of them the child comes in contact, and his educational development is influenced by them. Hence, it is necessary to view education as a broader process than that which takes place within the confines of our four school walls.

Many of these agencies and institutions are directly related to the educational processes through the contacts which the public school makes with them. The nature of these contacts is becoming increasingly significant when studied in terms of school-community relations. In one sense, the public school utilizes these agencies as a means of approach to the home and the community; in another, to supplement the educational work that the school is doing. The agencies themselves create problems for the schools to solve. Their motives, acceptable enough from an economic or social point of view, occasionally become detrimental to childhood from an educational point of view.

The public press is an old and established agency, with roots deep in the past; the motion picture and the radio are now educational forces with possibilities yet undreamed of. Advertising is both a problem and a source of teaching materials. Comic strips have become a national problem. With all of these the student of school-community relations should be familiar. Their educational influences vary greatly in different communities and under different conditions. They become the means of creating public opinion and, at the same time, the vehicles of the propagandists.

This chapter seeks briefly to analyze some of these agencies and materials to relate them to the public schools. Out of this analysis and these relationships a selection may be made and a point of view established which may be helpful in building or adapting a program for more desirable school-community relations.

THE PUBLIC PRESS

America is a news-reading people. There is scarcely a home in which the news of the nation and the community does not enter through the

newspaper and magazine, weekly, daily, even morning and evening. Approximately fifty million newspaper copies are published and circulated daily, not including Sunday editions, which add another fifty million. Added to these are the nearly seven thousand magazines published annually with an estimated average circulation per issue of about 170 million copies. Although many people depend upon the radio for news, the newspaper remains one of the greatest, if not the greatest, source of news. It is still a powerful creator of public opinion, despite some evidence to the contrary in national elections.

DEFINITION OF NEWS

Many definitions of news have been attempted. "News is anything which interests a large part of community and which has never been brought to its attention,"¹ or "news is what happens today that interests me."² News may be best understood in terms of its characteristics. It should be fresh, of interest to many, true, timely. Names make news. The press is highly competitive, and, because of this, editors strive through all sorts of ingenious means to interest the public. A nationally known journalist has pointed out that we must recognize two plain facts about the press: (1) its function is to handle news, not to convert itself into a preaching agency in behalf of even the best cause; and (2) the newspaper and the press in general is a business institution with a legitimate desire to show a profit at the end of the fiscal year. Moreover, as a profession the press has developed certain individual and ethical characteristics, rules, and principles, and a vocabulary of its own.³

Writers generally recognize the following elements in presenting news: (1) its immediacy, (2) proximity to reader interest, (3) consequences—what effect will it have, (4) prominence of names or events or places, (5) unusualness, (6) human interest—occurrences that stir the reader's emotions or appeal to his sentiments, and (7) drama, especially news found in some form of contest or conflict. Where these elements are combined, the effect becomes more significant in attracting and retaining reader interest.

PUBLIC EDUCATION AND THE PUBLIC PRESS

Public education may be concerned with (1) the educational influence of the public press as an institution in any community as it affects public

¹ Charles A. Dana, Editor (1868-1897) of the New York Sun.

² Clyde R. Miller and Fred Charles, *Publicity and the Public School* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924), p. 98.

³ See especially Nelson Antrim Crawford, *The Ethics of Journalism* (Alfred A. Knopf, 1924), p. 186.

education; and (2) the immediate place that the public press may occupy in a school-community relations program.

Public education must recognize the tremendous power of the public press for good or ill in any community. Children should become acquainted with the number and nature of the newspapers in their community, their political and editorial policies, their attitudes towards education in general and the local public schools in particular. They should be taught to read with discrimination and to weigh public matters with careful judgment.

Newspapers and news magazines are now widely used in the classroom. There is scarcely a home in which from one to a dozen or more magazines and newspapers do not make periodic entry. Furthermore, journalism has developed to such an extent that there is great interest and appeal to young people through such items as sports, supplements, the "funnies," the "unusual," and articles which have an emotional appeal. To some persons the public press represents the whole truth; they never doubt what is expressed in its columns. If editorial policies are unfriendly to public education or to certain individuals associated with the local schools, unhealthy home and community attitudes may be developed which affect the whole educational enterprise.

In the opinion of most school officials, the daily press is the most important single community factor influencing the conduct and progress of the public schools. School administrators should seek a greater understanding of the public press and study the part which the public press can play in the solution of the educational problems of a community. It should be the duty of school officials and local editors to develop a spirit of cooperation in the interests of democracy in general and of public education in particular.

READER INTEREST IN SCHOOL NEWS AND NEWSPAPER RESPONSE

Since the school's principal concern with the public press centers about the nature and effect of the school news topics published, let us examine several studies which have sought to measure reader interest and newspaper response. In 1929 Farley made a study of school news topics in which parents indicated some interest.⁴ He sought to find out the extent to which the newspapers were publishing these topics and the amount of space devoted to them. The table below indicates thirteen topics with the rank of order of interest to parents as found by Farley and the rank order of column inches devoted to these topics by the newspapers. The

⁴ Belmont M. Farley, *What to Tell the People About Public Schools* (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929).

table shows parents' indication of interest in those school topics which concerned the real work of the school, such as pupil interest and achievement, methods of instruction, health of pupils, course of study, value of education, and discipline and behavior. Instead of giving the people appropriate space in this order, the newspapers were playing up extra-curriculum activities such as athletics, which ranks last in patron interest. Fifteen years later Thomas⁵ attempted to ascertain whether this interest had changed and whether the newspapers were endeavoring to accede to that interest in their publications. The second and fourth columns of the

<i>School news topics</i>	<i>Rank of interest of the topics to parents</i>		<i>Rank in column inches devoted to the topics</i>	
	Farley	Thomas	Farley	Thomas
Pupil progress and achievement	1	9	4	4
Methods of instruction	2	3	10	10
Health of pupils	3	1	9	6
Course of study	4	4	6	7
Value of education	5	2	12	14
Discipline and behavior	6	5	11	11
Teachers and school officers	7	13	2	5
Attendance	8	7	13	12
Buildings and building programs	9	14	8	13
Business management and finance	10	11	7	9
Board of education and administration	11	6	5	8
Parent-teacher association	12	8	3	3
Extracurricular activities	13	10	1	2
Athletics	..	12	..	1

table show 'Thomas' findings. For purposes of emphasis, he segregated athletics from extracurricular activities. He found that parents were still interested in these school news topics which concerned pupils' welfare, such as health of pupils, value of education, methods of instruction, and the course of study, with some change in order. The newspapers, however, were still giving predominant space to athletics and extracurricular activities.

These studies would seem to indicate that parents and patrons are vitally interested in the real work of the school, *which centers around the pupil*. Why, then, have newspapers played up athletics and similar extra-curricular activities, which the readers have ranked as of *least* interest to them? Newspaper editors have not generally caught the significance of school news. School officials have been losing opportunities through their

⁵ William J. Thomas, *A Study of the Interests of Readers of Public School Newspaper Publicity* (Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1944).

newspapers in acquainting the general public with the real work of the public school and its education values. The fault lies both with the editorial policies and personnel and with school officials themselves. Since the evidence in both studies clearly indicates that newspapers generally *do not* print the school news about which patrons of the school would like to know more, school authorities must consider one of two alternatives: (1) bring about a greater degree of cooperation with editors in the publication of school news, or (2) develop their own media for the presentation of school news to the parents if they are to retain parent interest in the schools. In many communities school people are turning to the second alternative.

Another interesting fact in newspaper publicity was pointed out by Benford.⁶ Studying space in newspapers in smaller communities given to education, he found that school news had to "compete" with all other types of news, and unless it concerned extracurricular activities in some form it was usually relegated to other than first and second pages. Only occasionally was preferred space given to the board of education, parent-teacher association, and teacher and pupil affairs.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE SCHOOLS AND THE PRESS

Recognizing the power of the public press in any school community program, school authorities, having ascertained through studies, surveys, and other means those educational matters of greatest interest and need in any community, should seek to supply the information which would retain that interest and supply that need. At the same time, the public press should recognize not only its power as an educational force in any community but its obligation to cooperate for the public good in the right use of that force with those responsible by law for the educational enterprises. It would seem that personal piques of either editor or school official have no place in the local papers. The public press should provide ample use of its columns for matters of educational significance consistent with their value and the needs of public education in that community. Where this is not the case, the fault lies in the lack of an adequate school organization with adequate channels for transmitting and receiving the news.

THE EDUCATIONAL PUBLICITY PROGRAM

Perhaps the best statement of the need for educational publicity, its objectives, and program has been made by Benjamin Fine, education editor of the *New York Times*.⁷ He defines it as "that instrument which

⁶ Harry D. Benford, *The Scope of Educational Newspaper Publicity in Certain Third Class School Districts in Pennsylvania* (M. A. Thesis, University of Pittsburgh, 1936).

⁷ Benjamin Fine, *Educational Publicity* (Harper and Brothers, 1943).

interprets to the public the place of the school, college, or educational organization in the community, in accordance with the policies and limitations expressed in the public relations program of the particular institution." Such a definition places sole responsibility on each school to develop its own program. The program should seek to accomplish only that which is best for education in general and the schools of the community in particular. Educators should not fear the press, viewing it as "just a nuisance to be tolerated." Nor must educators assume a discourteous attitude toward reporters and editors. Publicity releases should be written in newspaper style, answering the five W's—who? what? where? why? and when? with how? occasionally added. The style should be simple, direct, and clear, with release dates indicated.

Responsibility for direction is essential. In larger school systems a director, whole or part time, should be appointed with necessary staff.⁸ He should be properly qualified, a good speaker of engaging personality and social vision, and capable of making necessary contacts. He should know education as well as his community. There must also be provision for photography.

SUGGESTIONS FOR BETTER EDUCATIONAL PUBLICITY

In summary, it should be pointed out that there are three parties to an educational publicity program: (1) the school, (2) the public press, and (3) the community. Each has an interest in this program. The problem is how to balance these interests. The public schools, however, must take the initiative in developing the program.

1. Cooperation of the schools, the press and the community in regard to public education is essential if the press is to function to its full capacity as a desirable instrument of better home-school-community relationships.

2. Due proportion and emphasis should be given to matters of principal educational significance in the columns of the public press.

3. The schools and the public should recognize that the press is a separate institution of society and that it fulfills a peculiar and an important place in that society, conformity to which is desirable for the best results to education.

4. Channels should be developed and maintained through which school news—features, stories and other forms of school publicity—should flow regularly and unhindered to the public press. Proper journalistic procedures should be studied and followed.

5. Ethical relationships should be maintained with all those associated with the public press—editors, reporters, etc.

6. The manner in which the public press should be used to convey school news, such as straight news, feature or human interests stories, the school page, advertisements, pictures, and charts of the public schools,

⁸ See *ibid.*, Chap. V, for a more complete account of the publicity staff.

should be studied carefully in order to ascertain the proper method or methods to be used.

7. A proper organization for the dissemination of school news should be developed. The place and function of the following should be studied: a publicity director, the superintendent's office, the principal's office, teachers and pupils, a publicity calendar, some record of school news appearing in the press, and some school policy toward the public press.

8. Proper recognition should be given to the role that the picture is playing in the dissemination of "news," as in feature pages, picture pages, and illustrated magazines.

9. A gentlemen's agreement should be made in regard to the non-publication of school news considered inimical to the welfare of public education in general and the local public schools in particular.

10. Studies show that parents and public *do want real news of the educational work of the schools*. Properly reported, this should be given prominent first, second, or last page space.

THE MOTION PICTURE

THE MOTION PICTURE AS AN EDUCATIONAL AND SOCIAL FORCE

The motion picture has become an educational and social force of great proportions in American life. Developed primarily for its entertainment features, it has become through its tremendous emotional appeal a powerful influence in shaping attitudes and social values. Moreover, motion-picture personalities have come to shape the thoughts and ideals of multitudes of young people, influencing their manners, dress, speech, habits, attitudes towards romance, and social customs.

Because of its wide range of subjects and its effect in shaping attitudes and ideals, the educational importance of the commercial motion picture should be studied carefully. Efforts to develop controls through motion-picture censorship under state regulation, or indeed under the National Board of Review, do not appear to have solved the problem.

The Payne Fund studies in relation to motion pictures and youth have given us probably the most comprehensive data in regard to the attendance of school children at commercial motion-picture theaters. It is estimated that more than one third of the motion-picture audience throughout the United States is composed of children and youth under the age of twenty-one. Of these, boys spend more time in the movies than girls, with about three fourths of their attendances over the week end. Parents frequently attend with their children, although probably children more frequently go with their friends. Three times as many boys as girls go alone to the movies. On an average, each child in areas where motion

pictures are available goes to the movies once a week. Motion pictures emphasizing crime, sex, and romance comprise about three fourths of the pictures which children observe. Compared with historical and literary subjects, this is a large ratio. Motion pictures also may be said to over-emphasize luxurious standards of living and to place undue emphasis on unreal situations. There is ample reason to believe that children's attitudes toward life, virtue and morality, education, sex, and many other aspects of social living are influenced unduly, even antisocially, by misconceptions and unrealities conveyed on the motion-picture screen. Although the child retains only about two thirds as much as the adult from his attendance at the movies, what he learns there changes his attitudes, and the changes have a lasting influence.

Partly as an outgrowth of the Payne Fund studies and partly as a result of other forces working in the same direction, churches and other social-service groups have started a movement to improve the quality of the motion picture. As a result, the industry has been producing better pictures and exercising a more vigorous control over the content. Moreover, the public is becoming sensitized to the influence of the motion picture and more critical attitudes are being developed to raise its standards. The schools have been teaching motion-picture appreciation, a recent survey indicating that 80 percent of the 9000 school systems reporting were offering some instruction in the public schools designed along selective lines or related to instruction and appreciation. Even so, it does not appear that a satisfactory solution has been achieved.

EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS AS OUTCOMES OF MOTION-PICTURE INFLUENCES

To what extent are motion pictures supplementing or counteracting the influence of public education, the home, or the church? To what extent are the current problems of crime or sex attributable to their influence? To what extent should communities be permitted to select the motion pictures that their children should see and hear? How can the school cooperate more effectively in regard to these problems? These are pertinent problems with educational significance and might well be considered carefully in connection with any school-community relations program.

Hoban, Hoban, and Zisman⁹ present interesting conclusions in regard to the educational influence of the motion picture:

The first is that the motion picture is a powerful medium of education; the second, that children, even of an early age, learn a surprisingly large

⁹ C. F. Hoban, C. F. Hoban, Jr., and S. B. Zisman, *Visualizing the Curriculum* (The Dryden Press, 1938), pp. 93-94.

number of facts from a motion picture and can remember them for a surprisingly long time; the third, that motion pictures produce a measurable change in attitudes towards social problems; fourth, that motion pictures powerfully stir the emotions; and fifth, that they provide patterns of conduct in daydreaming, phantasy, and action.

In so far as public education is concerned, several problems are plainly indicated. How can the public schools adequately utilize this educational device? How can the public schools use the motion picture to counteract and nullify its harmful influences? How can the public schools utilize the motion picture for better instructional purposes? Considerable experimental research has been done and is now in progress in analyzing the motion picture as an instrument of instruction. Yet it is generally agreed that the broad possibilities of the motion picture in school instruction have yet to be applied to practical school situations.

USING MOTION PICTURES TO RECORD SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

Motion pictures of school events and procedures have been used more recently to publicize the work of the school and to aid in interpreting the school's purposes and activities to the community. These vary from short films of single activities to lengthy films based on a prepared scenario and showing every phase of school life. Included in many of these larger productions may be community activities of many kinds, indicating the educational and social influences in the daily or weekly life of the child. If properly planned and produced there is probably no better means of conveying to the community the activities of the school and the educational and social environment of childhood. In addition, these films if made periodically may supplement records of the school for archival purposes. Although professional supervision and production are much to be desired, many fine films of school activities are being produced by amateurs—teachers, photography clubs, and friends of the schools.

SUGGESTIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL USE OF MOTION PICTURES

As in the case of the public press and the radio, the solution of these problems appears to be a cooperative one. The following suggestions are offered for developing ways and means for making the motion picture of greater educational significance and adapting its use to a desirable school-community relations program:

1. Recognition of the possibilities of the motion picture as an educational and social influence in the community and in the school.
2. Development of some plan whereby the educational and social values of motion pictures in any community can be adequately studied and relia-

bly measured. The results of such a study should be made the basis of a program of educational relationships, cooperation, and control.

3. Provision for adequate utilization of motion pictures in the public school, proper instruction, purchase of equipment, study of techniques, selection and adaption to curricular and extracurricular needs, and proper appraisal of results.

4. Use of the motion picture to record school activities and procedures for purposes of record, to inform the school and the public, and to interpret education to the community.

5. Provision for the adequate use of motion pictures in connection with other agencies and institutions of the community having indirect educational significance, and desirous of cooperating in any way with such educational organizations as parent-teacher associations, recreational centers, scouting organizations, and similar groups.

6. Cooperation with motion-picture producers, local booking agencies, or others having to do with production and distribution of motion pictures of any sort, to the end that more desirable educational and social values may be developed in any community and better pictures shown.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

With 93 percent of radio time given over primarily for commercial purposes, the educational uses of this valuable means of communication are far from being realized, although it is admitted that many commercial programs are wholly or partly educational. The remaining 7 percent of the time is shared with programs of a religious, political, and social nature. As long as radio is under private domination and operated for profit, its predominantly commercial use will doubtless continue. Many smaller stations devoting a larger portion of time to educational and social matter either have been crowded off the air or given unfavorable time, power, and channel allocations. The exercise of greater public control, as in England, should serve to allocate a larger amount of time to the public interest. However, it must be admitted that earlier attempts at utilization of such radio opportunities as were available for educational purposes were inadequate and in many cases futile. Proper material was lacking and programs were poorly presented. Speakers used poor enunciation and were often opinionated; radio technique was not understood, and valuable opportunities were lost. Competition with highly colorful commercial programs proved the educational program a poor second.

RADIO'S EDUCATIONAL SIGNIFICANCE

Radio's contacts are influential because they are first hand, authentic, and immediate. The listener "sits in" at the event, which is either real

or vividly portrayed. Because of the success in influencing millions of adults, educators have been considering the educational potentialities of radio. Much experimentation with radio as a method of teaching has been taking place in school systems. Its value in a school-community relations program has been discovered. Considerable progress has been made in its use through the installation of a public address system with classrooms wired to the central receiving set. Many teachers use their own radios in classroom instruction.

Probably the most significant study of the use of radio in the classroom has been made by Harrison.¹⁰ The specific educational objectives of radio for school use are as follows: (1) as a source of materials, (2) to set standards for pupils, (3) to increase children's interests, (4) to expose children to conflicting points of view, (5) geographical values, (6) worthy use of leisure, (7) to know prominent people, (8) current events, and (9) to introduce significant topics, and to guide pupils in judgment and evaluation. Radio programs for school use should contribute to existing activities, initiate new activities, provide drill in tool subjects, or provide entertainment and recreation. Teaching techniques in English, social studies, and music can be applied in the educational use of the radio.

TYPES OF RADIO PROGRAMS FOR EDUCATIONAL USE

Radio programs used for public education may be classified under the following types: (1) complete educational programs sponsored and controlled directly by the public schools having as their purpose a better understanding of education in general and of the public schools in particular; (2) programs wholly or partially devoted to educational purposes, sponsored by commercial or other agencies. These programs are intended primarily for parents and the general public and are usually offered outside of school hours; (3) programs intended for educational purposes in the public schools, sponsored by broadcasting companies and other agencies; and (4) programs sponsored by local educational authorities and intended to supplement the school work of a specific school system. Programs of types 3 and 4 above are intended primarily for public-school children and are usually offered during the hours when the schools are in session. Transcriptions of radio programs can be obtained and reproduced for educational use.

Through cooperation among the broadcasting, educational, and other groups interested in youth, broadcasting facilities and programs should be developed for the greater benefit of the listening public, as well as for instructional purposes in the classroom. More direct controls should be

¹⁰ Margaret Harrison, *Radio in the Classroom* (Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937).

exercised over radio programs dealing with crime, delinquency, soap operas, and matters inimical to desirable educational objectives. Greater effort should be put forth to live up to the code adopted by the Columbia Broadcasting System, which does not allow glorification of gangsters and criminals as modern heroes, disrespect for parental or constituted authority, cruelty, greed, or selfishness, programs that arouse harmful nervous reactions, conceit, smugness and an unwarranted sense of superiority, exploitation, dishonesty and deceit.¹¹

SUGGESTIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL USE OF RADIO

In view of the fact that radio audiences have become largely *entertainment-minded*, educational programs having interpretative didactic purposes must include many of the elements of popular appeal, if they are to "get across to the public." Such elements might include human interest, names, timeliness, popularized information, and similar approaches aptly used by the public press.

The following additional suggestions are offered:

1. Recognition of the possibilities of the radio in education, with a special study of local needs and conditions.
2. Establishment of a local organization in order to use radio facilities adequately; in response to the results of such a study.
3. Study of the techniques of broadcasting, with special emphasis on nature of programs, their appeal, expression in vital English; the use of music and dramatic presentations as a part or all of the program; length of program; rate of speech (not to exceed 170 words per minute); enunciation; pauses; elimination of clearing of throat, rattling of papers, or other distracting noises; and pleasing voice and personality.
4. The use of programs adapted to the need of the schools and desirable school-community conditions. The following types may be included: open forums, discussions, interviews, dialogues, spelling matches, historic or literary dramatic productions, addresses on school topics of specific interests, musical programs by school or community groups, demonstrations of school work, programs sponsored by parent-teacher or other educational groups, athletic contests or pageants vividly described.
5. Radio educational programs which include as speakers, from time to time, prominent citizens, school officials, authorities in special fields, officers of civic and public-welfare organizations, or others qualified to present some subject of pertinent interest, individual teachers, and occasionally pupils. Each person selected should have a "message."
6. In addition to periodically planned radio programs, special programs to take advantage of such occasions as American Education Week, Arbor Day, Thanksgiving, Founder's Day, Constitution Day, Armistice Day, and similar patriotic holidays.

¹¹ Francis J. Brown, *Educational Sociology* (Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947), pp. 422-423.

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7. A plan to appraise the results of these radio efforts. Listeners should be invited to send in comments and suggestions. These should be evaluated by educational authorities in terms of improving radio programs.

8. Equipment of every school and, wherever possible, every classroom with radio facilities, preferably independently controlled.

RADIO FACILITIES

In order to make the best possible use of all radio facilities, the public schools must be adequately equipped with receiving sets. Public-address systems, although expensive, are recommended, but they have marked limitations. It is not too much to expect that every classroom should be equipped with a radio independently controlled. Teaching programs should be adapted to these newer facilities as soon as they are available. Teachers should study possibilities and the administration should advance experimentally. The experimental progress of the Cleveland Public Schools in the educational use of radio should be studied carefully.

TELEVISION

Television began its commercial venture in 1939. In 1949, 2,000,000 receivers were produced. Hundreds of thousands saw the inauguration of President Truman on January 20, 1949. It has been estimated that 400 television stations in existence in 1950 would grow to perhaps 1000 within another decade.

It is yet too early to predict the educational significance of television. Since it is so closely allied to radio, the suggestions indicated for radio might well apply.

RECORDINGS

Of interest because of its rapid growth and possible educational uses is the recent development of recordings and transcriptions. In 1949 there were an estimated 20 million record players in the United States, whose owners purchased annually between 200 and 300 million records.* In addition to purchases of new records, there is a large turnover through repurchase and exchange. The recently developed microgroove record has revolutionized the industry, producing longer-playing records. Transcribed music makes up a large proportion of radio broadcasts. The transcription of radio programs permits their broadcast at more convenient times. The possibilities of records and transcriptions in education have not yet been realized. Two uses are suggested: (1) educational uses in the classroom as in speech, dramatics, languages, and (2) in the school-

* *Radio Annual* (Radio Daily Corporation, 1949), p. 67.

community relations program through reproduction of school work, school activities, and community affairs.

EDUCATION AND COMMERCIAL ADVERTISING

ADVERTISING MATERIALS AS EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS

When paid advertising materials find their way into the public schools, they provide an educational problem of considerable magnitude. There are many ways in which this is done: free distribution of such manufactured products as breakfast foods, toothbrushes, toothpaste, book covers, blotters, pencils, all bearing printed advertising statements and intended ultimately to create additional sales; insertion of statements in textbooks and other curricular materials intended to bias or to indoctrinate; promotion of contests, on condition that free advertising results; provision of speakers before assemblies, classes, or individual contacts for representation of certain businesses; utilization of school children in or outside of school hours under the name of the school to collect materials, give out samples, or appear in public functions or spectacles. In addition to these methods, copious use has been made of lantern slides, posters, charts, tools, machinery, exhibits, clip sheets, calendars, book markers, inexpensive school supplies, free pamphlets, school banks, and many other means for advertising within the school. The use of radio and commercial films in the schools is hardly possible without the injection of advertising in some form.

When the Cleveland Board of Education ordered a survey of publicity materials used in its schools, it found that approximately 2500 separate items were advertised in some manner. As a result the board drew up rules and regulations to administer this serious problem. A similar study might be made in all school districts and recommendations made and adopted in relation to the needs disclosed. The public schools should not become the vehicle of commercial interests.

EXPENDITURES OF PUBLIC-SCHOOL FUNDS FOR PAID ADVERTISING

The extent to which the public school should engage in paid advertising is a matter of educational concern because it involves the expenditure of public funds. The principal purposes for such publicity appear to be the securing of some form of concentrated interest in and support for one or more of the activities of the school, or for the school enterprise in general. Some of the activities in which paid advertising has functioned are school bond campaigns for school buildings, campaigns for teachers'

salaries, the school budget, school elections, athletic or other contests, dramatic productions, concerts, or other school activities. Occasionally, paid advertising of school activities has been used in order to secure a return of free publicity in the form of news stories.

There are many forms of paid advertising used by the public schools to achieve results in these activities. These include campaigns or drives, press insertions, radio announcements, moving pictures, slides and reels, tags, handbills, posters, floats, banners, parades, school demonstrations, and displays in stores and other public places. On occasions where an important educational enterprise is under public consideration, a publicity director may be employed. Where the drive becomes intensive and strenuous, the work of the school may be disorganized over a considerable period of time. Such practices may be open to serious question.

The legal mandates and statutory restrictions of any state should be carefully noted in reviewing the problem of paid advertising. The public should be fully informed of the nature and scope of these requirements.

There is much difference of opinion regarding the desirability of soliciting or accepting paid advertisements in school publications. Many school publications could not be circulated without the "subsidy" of community businessmen, most of whom look upon their advertisements as donations. Wherever possible such advertisements should be eliminated. If the school activity is definitely a part of the educational work of the school system, any expense in connection with it should be borne by the school board through proper allocation.

SUGGESTIONS IN REGARD TO ADVERTISING MATERIALS

The following suggestions are offered in regard to advertising materials and paid advertising:

1. All legal mandates and restrictions in regard to expenditure of public funds for advertising should be carefully studied and the public fully informed of their nature.

2. The expenditure of public funds for paid advertising unless legally required is debatable. Any justification of such expenditure must be in accordance with furthering the cause of public education in any community in the face of a demonstrated need.

3. Proper commercial publicity of the output of production is a legitimate procedure. Public education may be concerned with such publicity. (a) if undue influence is exercised on the public schools to publicize these goods in any manner and achieve consumer acceptance of them and (b) if publicity and sale of such goods is inimical to educational aims and purposes.

4. Each local school community should study the problem of advertis-

ing materials in so far as they affect the public schools and draw up rules and relations in regard thereto.

5. The use of paid advertising in order to obtain the publication of school news in the public press is hardly justifiable.

6. Paid advertising in school publications should be discouraged wherever possible, and the school board urged to adopt and support the school activity as an educational project.

READING MATERIALS

Reading is one of the characteristics of Americans. More than one billion dollars is spent annually for reading materials. Nearly 7000 magazines have a total circulation of 170,000,000 copies. Regular libraries circulate more than 400,000,000 books annually. Drug stores and department stores add to this total.

The newsstands of America are piled with reading materials of every type—magazines, newspapers, comics, and cheap fiction. This reading material is often widely circulated after the original purchase or rental. The types of its reading materials bear a definite relation to the social status of a community and of its groups.

COMICS

Comic books and comic strips have become an important influence on American habits and ways of life and a medium of effective communication. A recent study of comics has revealed that the reading of comics is widespread among *all* levels of our society. Four out of five urban adults read comics. Adult attitudes toward newspaper comics are generally favorable. A much higher percentage of adults with a college education read comics than those limited to a grade-school education. Most adults do not oppose comics for children.

Children have become avid readers of the comic strip. It is impossible to get any reliable estimate of those who read them except to say that most children follow several strips daily. *Newsweek*, in attempting to answer the question "Are comic books a national hazard?" found that approximately 72 million dollars is spent on comic books annually, for 60 million copies monthly, most of these read by children.¹² The report further stated that nearly all children buy comic books as a "steady reading diet," and that some comic books are a bad influence, putting criminal ideas into young minds, and conveying false standards of life. They

¹² "Are Comic Books a National Hazard?" *Platform*. Club and Educational Bureaus of *Newsweek*, Feb. 1949. See also *Adult America's Interest in Comics*, and *America Reads the Comics* (Reports of the Department of Communications in Education, New York University, Dec. 1948 and Dec. 1949).

often glorify violence, and are harmful to impressionable people. The study contains much important material of interest and value to education in this controversial problem.

Without a doubt, comic books have become an educational problem in every community. They must definitely be reckoned as a school-community problem. It is evident that comics have emerged as a major institution of our American culture. They have become a great social force. We must understand them, evaluate them, and learn to live with them, improving where we can.

LEARNING IN RELATION TO THE COMMUNITY AND ITS RESOURCES

Some one has aptly remarked that man is the sum total of all his experiences, educational and otherwise, and while educational institutions have been entrusted with the more formal aspects of learning, much of it takes place within the total community environment.

SCOPE

Learning is not confined to any specific period in life of an individual. There is no age level at which learning ceases to take place, as Thorndike¹³ has shown; nor is there any time of the day or week except during sleeping hours when one may be said not to learn—that is, to be influenced by thoughts, ideas, opinions, discussions, conventions, lectures, concerts, pictures, conversations, public communications, or reading matter of any sort. It is probably true that individuals learn less each year after twenty-five than they learned between five and twenty-five. The zest for exploration, as a rule, is greater in younger than older persons. However, as Thorndike has pointed out, children do spend a greater proportion of their time in routine performances which may be “uneducative,” whereas when learning does take place in adults, the effect is probably of greater value. All learning is subject to various combinations of four factors: general health and vitality, ability to learn, interest in learning, and opportunity to learn.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PUBLIC EDUCATION

All this discussion has implications for public education and public-school relations. Children in the public school are tremendously influenced educationally by learning which takes place through these agencies

¹³ Edward L. Thorndike, Elsie C. Bregman, J. Warren Tilton, and Ella Woodyard, *Adult Learning* (Macmillan Co., 1928). pp. 146-147.

of society located outside of the school. Many of these influences have been pointed out. At the same time, the student of school-community relations is interested in the contacts which those agencies make with the public schools, the opportunity which citizens have to engage in public relations, and the part which they may play in a relations program.

In view of the findings of Thorndike and others in regard to the scope of learning of adults, and more especially in regard to the greater amount of leisure time available to adults to learn and otherwise be informed, one may seriously question Moehlman's earlier statement¹⁴ that only 4 percent of an individual's time is available for keeping him informed. There are available to the individual many occasions during the day and week during which he may be learning, receiving information, and otherwise being influenced in his ideas, opinions, and attitudes. Furthermore, with the increased leisure of individuals, "bombardments" of ideas will occur increasingly, especially as the means of communication increase and opportunities are multiplied.

Attitudes, opinions, and ideals in individuals are traceable to many sources. Education in a broad sense must be concerned with those characteristics of society's agencies and institutions which may have desirable educational significance. Attaining desirable community attitudes and ideals toward education is a cooperative process. The public schools must be reflected as well as reflect. They are concerned that the home and community think educationally as well as in directing that thinking in a desirable manner. The public schools are concerned with a proper understanding of all of society's agencies and institutions, just as these in turn are concerned with the school's purposes and ideals; for it must not be forgotten that the people through their elected representatives determine the nature and support of the public schools. Education is the reflection of the popular will expressed in many ways.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Which of the following exerts the most significant educational influence upon education in general and the public schools in particular: (a) the motion picture? (b) the radio? (c) the public press? (d) comics?
2. To what extent may it be said that the objectives of the public school are in opposition to those agencies mentioned in the preceding question? At what points in harmony?

¹⁴ Arthur B. Moehlman, *Public School Relations* (Rand McNally Co., 1927), p. 7.

3. What is the most significant contribution made by Farley in his study, *What to Tell the People about the Public Schools?* Compare Thomas' findings.
4. How would the rank order of interest in school topics in your school district agree with data as outlined on p. 000? How would you find out?
5. Should the board of education support all extracurricular activities without any form of subsidy such as subscription, ticket sales, advertising, or donations?
6. To what extent is it practicable to develop further the use of radio for education? How can you use recordings in a school-community relations program?
7. To what extent is the developing use of the motion picture and radio in education undermining the motivation or activity principle in teaching procedure?
8. How many of the suggestions for the educational use of the public press can be applied in your neighborhood? Answer similarly for radio. For motion pictures. For advertising.
9. Make a study of the use of advertising materials and paid publicity in the public schools of your school district.
10. Make a study of the comics read by a group of children. What are some of the problems?
11. How would you proceed to survey the resources of your community? How utilize them?

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CHAPTER 14

Community Organizations

"WE MUST BE HAVING Indian Summer," said Mary Brown one Sunday morning in early November, as she arose and called her family to get ready for church. The Browns had raised their children in a religious home atmosphere and had endeavored to teach them moral and spiritual values. John always said that parents should take more responsibility for developing character in their children, although he felt that the church might become a much greater community force.

Beside the churches with their recreational and social programs, there were other organizations in Allison City engaged in recreational and character-building activities. These included the Y.M.C.A. and several Boy and Girl Scout clubs. Yet John and Mary Brown were concerned with the large number of licensed taverns and many forms of commercialized amusements. They were concerned especially for John, Junior, who was growing up rapidly. In a year or two he would be wanting to drive the family automobile.

But these worries were soon forgotten as the Brown family finished

breakfast and started for church. Who wouldn't be happy on such a beautiful morning?



Modern social living is highly complex. Many organizations which form an essential part of our social existence and are found in most communities have some educational significance. The individual profits to a greater or less degree through the services and activities of the organization, the primary purpose being the welfare of the individual membership. When the purposes of the organization becomes altruistic in character, motives and activities appear with which public education becomes increasingly concerned and of which it should have a sympathetic awareness, especially if the organization itself has adopted a definite educational program.

The public school, then, would seem to be concerned with community organizations in two ways: (1) where services and activities may be performed which have instructional value either educationally or socially, and (2) where the organization through its activities performs a type of service supplementing public-school activities or assisting in any manner to fulfill the purposes of public education or provide for the general welfare of childhood.

This chapter attempts to indicate the scope of these community organizations. It sets forth some analysis of so typical an organization as the church; it offers a classification of organizations into nonprofit and profit types; it seeks to examine the nature of the educational contacts which the public school makes with them; it stresses certain factors which the public school should consider in relation to their policies and programs; it offers, finally, some suggestions in connection with the formation of an administrative policy, recognizing at all times the prior responsibility of public education.

SCOPE AND EDUCATIONAL NATURE

The number and variety of social groups increase in a society with the development of its civilization and the variety of its problems. America, a highly civilized society, is highly complex with respect to its social groups. Such organized groups have grown out of man's religious, civic, social, economic, political, and fraternal interests.

It is impossible to make even a reasonably accurate estimate of the total number of national, regional, state, and local organizations in the United States, much less to estimate their combined membership. Aside

from those which can be classified through directories and other services, there are additional thousands of local organizations uncatalogued and unknown outside their respective communities.

The United States Department of Commerce listed in 1941 more than 11,000 commercial, industrial, and professional organizations. About one fifth of these were interstate, national, and international in scope; another fifth were state organizations, and the remainder local organizations. About 25 organizations in the national group had membership in excess of 100,000, and four had membership of more than 1,000,000. Other directories list numerous organizations of a more specific nature. More than 5000 conventions are attended annually by thousands of members.

The interests of these organizations extend to every conceivable purpose. Some, such as the parent-teacher association, are concerned with education directly; others, such as the American Legion, Y.M.C.A., and service clubs, are concerned with it indirectly. In this chapter we shall deal with these organizations in two ways: (1) as they may be instrumental in a school-community relations program, and (2) as the program of education which they may develop may concern public education.

YOUTH-SERVING ORGANIZATIONS

Reasonably accurate studies are available concerning those organizations which serve youth through a definitely organized program. The American Council on Education¹ reported in 1947 the membership, purposes, activities and finances of over 250 such organizations, a decline since 1942. These organizations were classified as (1) character-building, (2) religious, (3) student, (4) research and social planning, (5) political, labor, and veteran, (6) agricultural and rural, (7) interracial, (8) service clubs, (9) women's clubs, (10) educational, (11) guidance, personnel, and employment, (12) recreation and conservation, (13) health and safety, (14) child welfare, (15) serving handicapped youth, and (16) temperance, humane, and international.

The extent and variety of purpose revealed in this list are indeed far reaching and indicate a deep-seated social interest in youth. The extent of membership can be revealed by noting the following with a youth membership of more than 1,000,000:

Junior Red Cross	19,326,000
Boy Scouts of America	1,938,000
Young Men's Christian Association	1,665,000
4-H Clubs	1,562,000
International Society of Christian Endeavor	1,500,000

¹ Chambers, *Youth-Serving Organizations*.

Methodist Youth Fellowship	1,058,000
Girl Scouts	1,214,000

In addition there are many adult-membership organizations whose program is concerned in part with youth. The largest of these include National Red Cross, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Federation of Women's Clubs, and American Farm Bureau Federation.

CLASSIFICATION OF ORGANIZATIONS

In attempting a further classification, a difficult task at best, we have made two divisions: (1) those organized as nonprofit and (2) those having a profit motive.

I. NONPROFIT TYPE

1. The church and its associated organizations
2. Leisure-time purpose predominant
3. Youth-serving purpose predominant
4. Service clubs.

II. PROFIT TYPE

1. Commercialized recreation.

Still another classification has been suggested by the Department of Elementary School Principals² for those public and nonsectarian groups that have either national or local child-helping projects.

1. Agencies whose sole purpose is extending help to children, such as the Children's Aid Society and the juvenile court.
2. Agencies which help the family, such as the Salvation Army and the Red Cross.
3. Agencies which help the physically and mentally handicapped, such as the Heart Association, National Polio Foundation, and Association for Crippled Children.
4. Character-building agencies, such as Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls and 4-H Clubs.
5. Other organizations whose projects help children, such as the American Legion, National Grange, Junior Red Cross, service clubs, and fraternal clubs.

A study of any community will reveal the activities of these organizations, and perhaps others, many sponsored by religious groups. They may make contact with the schools in many ways. Where their purposes and activities are in harmony with public education directly or indirectly.

² "The Public and the Elementary School," *Twenty-eighth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, N.E.A., (1949), pp. 124-125.

they should be encouraged and incorporated within the school-community relations program; where such is not the case, it may be necessary to oppose them. This may require much courage.

THE CHURCH

SCOPE

Public education in the United States had its origin among peoples whose religious faith was strong. Historically, the church and the public school have been traditional allies, each supplementing the work of the other in many ways. For the most part, church denominations have advocated and supported sound programs of education in spite of differences of opinion as to the manner of accomplishing the aims sought.

Public education as a community influence may have obscured the influence of the church within the past generation. Public-school buildings now appear more important than church edifices. Since 1906, the number of church buildings in this country has not increased in proportion to the growth of the population, whereas the size and quality of school buildings in most communities have grown enormously within the past generation. In 1926, there was a total of 232,000 Christian churches and Jewish synagogues in the United States, representing a net increase of less than 11 percent in twenty years.³ However, it should be pointed out that, owing to the shift of populations urbanward, there has been a decrease in the number of smaller rural churches, just as there has been a decrease in the number of rural school buildings owing to consolidation and population shifts. Church membership has been increasing at about the same ratio as the growth of population, the present ratio being about 55 percent of the total number of persons thirteen years of age and upward. Total membership in religious bodies of the United States has been estimated in 1949 at 79,576,352, a gain of 2,190,000 over the previous year, about 54 percent of the total population. The ratio in 1878 was approximately 35 percent.⁴ Since 1906, America has maintained her Protestant majority of about 60 percent.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

It is, however, with religious education that we are most concerned in this study. All religious denominations may be said to emphasize some

³ *Recent Social Trends*, Report of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends (McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933), p. 1019 ff.

⁴ *The Christian Herald* (Sept. 1949).

form of religious education. Within the past thirty years, new methods have been applied to religious education and a new vigor given to the movement. Denominational Sunday schools are characteristic of Protestant churches. Membership in these schools increased from 1926 to 1946 by about 45 percent, much the same general ratio as public-school attendance. Moreover, the church school has been augmented by the vacation and weekday schools and other types of schools designed to promote religious education.

RELIGIOUS AND PUBLIC EDUCATION

Religious education as sponsored by the church usually touches the public school at three points: (1) in weekday church schools, (2) through religious instruction in the public schools, and (3) through services performed by public-school teachers and officials in church schools and other religious activities. In the weekday church school, religious instruction is provided for public-school children during the school day. Usually the pupils are released for one hour a week through local school board or legislative action to receive instruction in a neighboring church.

Some religious instruction in the public schools may be provided through daily required readings of the Bible, usually without comment. The authority for any form of religious instruction as related to public education must be traced back to constitutional guarantee or statutory provision in some form. Edwards⁵ has commented on this point:

Whether a board of education has the legal authority to permit or require Bible reading in the schools, to authorize the use of the Bible as a reading book, or to give credit for religious instruction carried on outside the schools, depends very largely upon the wording of the constitution of the state and upon the interpretation which the Supreme Court gives to the constitution. In a very large percentage of the state constitutions there are provisions which possibly may be so interpreted as to prevent Bible reading or religious instruction of any kind in the public schools. Some of these provisions are: no one shall be compelled to attend any place of worship or be compelled to pay taxes to support any place of worship; neither the state nor any subdivision thereof may aid any sectarian school; civil rights and privileges shall not be affected by religious opinion; no money shall be appropriated to aid any church or sectarian school; no sectarian instruction shall be given in the public schools. In general, it has been held that such provisions are not violated by statutes or board regulations permitting the reading of the Bible, the repeating of the Lord's Prayer, the saying of prayers, or the singing of hymns, although on this point the courts are in irreconcilable conflict.

⁵ Newton Edwards, *The Courts and the Public Schools* (University of Chicago Press, 1933), pp. 561-562.

A recent decision of the Supreme Court in the *McCullum* case⁶ has forbidden the use of public-school buildings for religious instruction. Issues in this case have grown out of the historic tradition of the separation of church and state. This applies equally to the divorcement of public education from all church control in order to keep sectarian controversy out of the schools. Religious freedom being one of the basic liberties guaranteed in the Constitution of the United States, difficulties arise in interpreting where the secular ends and the sectarian begins in education. Nothing in the *McCullum* decision, however, apparently interfered with the authority of the board of education to release children for religious instruction if the nature and control of that instruction lay outside the school.⁷

OTHER RELIGIOUS CONTACTS WITH THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The wearing of a religious garb has usually been considered as related to sectarian instruction and has been forbidden in some states. This issue has been a cause of considerable dissension in some school districts. For example, a recent controversy on a state-wide basis took place in North Dakota. When the state supreme court held that the wearing of religious dress did not violate the state constitution, the people of that state adopted a referendum in 1948 prohibiting teachers in the public schools from wearing religious garb denoting a religious order or denomination. The bearing of this issue on controversies of a similar nature in North College Hill, Ohio, in New Mexico, and in McCook, Nebraska is significant.⁸ More than half of the states give high-school credit for Bible study. The nature of content material of such subjects as the social studies provides opportunities for religious information, even indoctrination in regard to religious matters. Serious problems have arisen in some communities where, in the opinion of certain church authorities, teachers have exceeded their prerogatives in such teachings as, for example, the Reformation and its causes. The holding of any form of religious service in the public schools has been the cause of dispute and dissension in some school districts. Objections have been raised to baccalaureate services on religious grounds, whether held in the school or in a local church. The employ-

⁶ *People Ex Rel. McCollum v. Board of Education of School District No. 71*, 68 Sup. Ct. 461 (1948). See also excellent discussion of this case by Ralph Dornfeld Owen, "The McCollum Case," *Temple Law Quarterly*, Vol. 22, No. 2 (Oct. 1948).

⁷ A statement of basic philosophy on religion and public education may be found in *Christian Education Today* (The International Council of Religious Education, 1940), Chap. IX.

⁸ R. Frecman Butts, *The American Tradition in Religion and Education* (Beacon Press, 1940). Consult J. C. Jackson and C. F. Malmberg, *Religious Education and the State* (Harper and Brothers, 1928). Also publications of the National Commission for the Defense of Democracy of the National Education Association for 1947.

ment or nonemployment of certain teachers because of religious affiliations is an issue on which certain communities are quite sensitive.

CHURCH-SCHOOL TEACHING

A study of the church-school teaching personnel in any community would reveal a goodly number of public-school teachers and administrators. Contacts of this type are usually wholesome and to be desired, and administrative officers and board members for the most part encourage them. Discretion must be used in such service at all times, however, in those communities which are supersensitive on religious matters. Otherwise, serious school-community problems may be impossible to prevent.

CLUBS AND ACTIVITIES UNDER SECTARIAN AUSPICES

The needs of youth for character-building, leisure-time, and recreational facilities have been provided liberally under sectarian auspices. Chambers⁹ lists twenty-one national and international Protestant religious youth-service organizations with membership in two instances of more than one million. The same report lists nine similar Catholic organizations. Numerous local clubs, activities, and recreational facilities provided by church groups or under the sponsorship of such other organizations as Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts, which meet in churches and receive sectarian support, are generally of significance in a community program for childhood and youth.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND SPIRITUAL VALUES

There is common agreement among educators that the full development of each child must include inculcation of those spiritual values considered essential to the good life. Difficulties arise, however, in the manner of their achievement. Since the American public school is a secular institution, to what extent shall the public school assume this responsibility without at the same time entering upon sectarianism; or on the other hand, is this responsibility one for parental or religious groups to assume? This is one of the most baffling issues in American education.¹⁰

NEED FOR BETTER UNDERSTANDING OF RELIGIOUS-EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS

A desirable school-community relations program must include an understanding of the part the religious life is playing in the educational and social life of any community. What are the attitudes of the church—not only of the churches themselves but individual clerical or lay leaders—

⁹ Chambers, *Youth-Serving Organizations*, Chaps. II, III.

¹⁰ Consult John S. Brubacher, *The Public Schools and Spiritual Values* (Harper and Brothers, 1944). See also National Education Association, *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools*, Educational Policies Commission, 1951.

toward education in that community? What is the extent of the church's educational and social influence? How is this influence expressed? What conception does the church in any community have as to its function? What activities of a recreational and social nature does it sponsor? What are the points of religious contact within the school? Wherein are these likely to cause problems?

Many churches have expanded their programs to include recreational centers, playgrounds, social centers, teacher-training classes, and similar activities. Some of these activities are far reaching and touch the lives of many boys and girls. In many communities, both large and small, it is the practice of teachers and school officials to associate themselves in general with the work of the church. Such participation is usually commended wholeheartedly.

There is need for understanding at those points where public education and religion may be at variance. Papal encyclicals on education stress the desirability of church direction of all education. The rapid growth of the Roman Catholic parochial system brings about issues of public policy in that many communities support two complete systems of education. Rapid expansion of the parochial school system to include parochial schools for other sectarian groups, as for example, Lutherans and Friends, raises a serious threat to the public schools, an issue which may eventually have momentous consequences.

LEISURE-TIME ORGANIZATIONS

Many organizations have sprung up in recent years primarily to provide some means of occupying the increased leisure time of modern youth. These endeavor to promote his social and moral well-being through activities which, though otherwise designed, have come to include activities more or less educational in character. Many of these organizations are national, even international, with units in every city, town, and hamlet. Others are strictly local, having arisen in response to some vigorous leadership to meet some local need. The growth of four of these organizations can be noted from the following table.

<i>Year</i>	<i>Y.M.C.A.</i>	<i>Boy Scouts</i>	<i>Girl Scouts</i>	<i>Camp Fire Girls</i>
1920	821,756	389,352	62,218	96,756
1925	925,216	593,123	138,174	155,053
1929	1,086,862	606,396	239,519	201,239
1930	1,059,666	629,303	283,931	209,980
1937	1,184,722	1,213,755	510,446	250,358
1946	1,665,722	1,938,179	1,213,913	360,000

YOUNG MEN'S AND YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS

Of especial significance as they relate to public education are the several organizations sponsored by the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations and associated with the public schools. Although other organizations sponsored by these Associations serve youth of public-school age outside the public schools, those definitely related to public education include the Hi-Y for the high-school boys, and Tri-Hi-Y for high-school girls, and the Gra-Y for boys 11, 12, and 13 years of age.

The Hi-Y Club is a good example of a character-building and leisure-time organization which is community sponsored. First organized in 1911 at Pittsfield, Massachusetts, the movement spread rapidly throughout the nation. It emphasizes the formation of high standards of Christian character, social service, and clean living. Usually it operates through clubs formed in the high school, meeting weekly, or at such other times or places as the group may select. Sponsors are high-school faculty members interested in boys and sympathetic to the purposes of the organization and the formation of Christian character.

Within the Hi-Y Club, the point system has been used successfully as the motivating force. Activities are organized under nine separate headings, with points designated for participation in each activity. These activities include: (1) special activities, such as programs, ceremonies, projects, Bible study, and entertainments; (2) club meetings conducted along specific lines, such as trips, week of prayer, peace observance; (3) campaigns, such as "go to church," clean speech, personal neatness; (4) cooperation with church programs, as in taking charge of service, church attendance, Sunday school attendance; (5) service projects, such as acting as usher, score keeper, janitor, providing special school services, aiding such community projects or institutions as the Salvation Army, or erecting Christmas trees; (6) social affairs, such as swimming parties, hikes, Big Brother sponsorship, Christmas parties; (7) banquets, as father-son, mother-son, college clubs; (8) other meetings and programs such as chapel or assembly exercises, interclub meetings, older boys' conferences; and (9) athletic events and teams, including practices, tournaments, and games.

SCOUTING

Scouting is definitely related to public education. Many of its troops are sponsored either by the public school or the local church. Meetings are often held in churches and schools, and scoutmasters and other personnel recruited from them. Definite services are rendered to the public schools by scouting organizations, especially as a direct outcome of scout

laws, scout oaths, merit-badge activities, and "a good turn daily." Many school authorities believe that scouts are better pupils, largely as a result of their scout training. In building up these organizations, considerable appeal is made for community service, as in clean-up days, welfare drives, song festivals, and good citizenship in general.

STUDY OF LEISURE-TIME ORGANIZATIONS

There are many other organizations sponsoring leisure-time activities in which the youth of school age are directly concerned. The scope and influence of these organizations vary in every community, depending upon the size and the vigor of the leadership. Public-school authorities should be familiar with the aims and purposes, personnel, activities, nature of the sponsorship, and such proposals for cooperation as may be offered by those existing in the community.

OTHER YOUTH SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS

There have been included under this classification widely divergent organizations whose aims and purposes are in part leisure time, in part recreational, and in part so varied that any definite classification will not be sufficiently inclusive. All render some service to American youth. Many of them have set up more or less definite educational programs, being sensitive to some remote educational need. Space is not available to outline within the confines of this chapter excellent services performed by such organizations devoted to rural youth as the 4-H Clubs and Future Farmers of America through radio programs, stock-judging contests, state and national conventions, and written materials of all kinds. The 4-H Clubs have a membership of more than 11½ million. Nor is space available to mention in detail the educational services rendered by the American Legion through medal awards to public-school pupils on the basis of courage, honor, service, leadership, and scholarship; and through insistence upon the adherence on the part of the public school to the basic principles of patriotism and American democracy. The outstanding services of the safety councils in teaching safety and citizenship should be mentioned, as well as the work of traveling libraries, conservation societies, Junior Red Cross, health agencies, clinics, community forums, and many others, all of which touch the public schools at many points. Mention should be made of the special educational services rendered by museums and art galleries to the public schools.

Settlement houses and community and recreational centers exercise through their activities an educational and social influence. In close touch with the child's environment, they do much to improve home conditions. The health of the child, his mental and emotional attitudes, and his general happiness improve concurrently his educational possibilities. Properly sponsored summer camps provide a means of removing him from an unhealthful environment and permit him to live out of doors under proper guidance.

Some activities, in part educational, provided by community centers are: patriotic celebrations, citizenship training through mock city council or legislative sessions, citizens' receptions, community centers and fairs, athletic contests, forums and lectures, exhibitions of all types, special classes, and guidance.

In larger cities many of these community centers are under the supervision and direction of the board of education in cooperation with social agencies of the neighborhood and are partly supported by public funds, the community chest, or donations of interested individuals or groups. Such centers may be found in New York City, Pittsburgh, Newark, Milwaukee, Cleveland, and many other cities.

CIVIC CLUBS

Organizations with motives directed toward civic ends exist in many communities under many names. They have in common the desire to develop a better understanding of government and an interest in civic problems. They encourage wide participation by all citizens in civic affairs, influence legislations, and insist on greater civic responsibility and activity on the part of public officials.

Since citizenship is a primary aim of education, cooperative relationships between these organizations and the public schools are desirable and should be encouraged. Usually these clubs have a department or committee devoted to educational affairs. Through this means members are kept informed of the progress of education. School officials have been invited to join the membership and discuss pertinent educational problems. In some instances these organizations have sponsored such educational activities as the promotion of libraries, educational facilities for the handicapped child, educational contests in or out of the public schools, and special days and weeks.

LIBRARIES

A well-organized library offers many services in a community. In addi-

tion to its facilities of books and magazines, there are story hours, lectures discussion groups, forums, and displays. Libraries are active participants in community cultural development, and should be included in a desirable school-community relations program.

SERVICE CLUBS

Service clubs have had a remarkable growth in membership and interest during the past twenty years. Motivated through the principles of service to community and humanity, these organizations have extended their activities into many fields of endeavor, touching education and social welfare at many points. Among these service clubs which have developed programs of cooperation with the public schools are: Civitan International, Exchange Club, Gyro International, Kiwanis International, Lions International, Optimist International, Rotary International, Association of Twenty-Thirty Clubs, and, in some instances, chambers of commerce.

PROCEDURES

Membership in service clubs is representative of many of the various occupational groups of the community. In practicing the ideals of service to community and humanity, the clubs usually operate through committees, such as the committee on the underprivileged child or on vocational guidance and placement.

Through mass vocational guidance and personal interviews the committee on vocational guidance and placements aids the child by (1) giving information to the individual, (2) securing information from the individual, (3) assisting him in making a choice as to what he shall do, (4) helping to work out a plan to attain the desired objective, (5) devising means to get the plan into operation, and (6) following up to see whether the desired results are being obtained.

Clubs may participate in community civic programs which they promote or which are already in operation. Members such as doctors, dentists, and oculists give freely of their services. The clubs have often been termed "allies of the school" because of the large number of educational activities which they sponsor.

ACTIVITIES

Perhaps the best study of the educational activities of service clubs

was made by Rumbaugh.¹¹ He classified these activities as follows: (1) the physical welfare of the child, (2) character, citizenship, and leisure-time training, (3) vocational guidance, (4) athletics, music, entertainment of youth, contests and awards, and (5) financial and moral support to individuals and schools.

Physical-welfare activities include provision for underprivileged children of clothing, milk, and medical and other needs; crippled children's needs; safety patrols; and hospitalization. Character-building activities include assistance to such agencies as the Scouts and 4-H Clubs, children's parties, boys' work activities, camps, recreational programs, soap-box derbies, and the support of those school and community programs having these objectives. Many service clubs seek to perpetuate patriotic ideals through prizes for essays and orations of a patriotic or civic nature, and the proper display of the American flag. Examples of vocational guidance include vocational talks, conferences, individual counseling, trips through industrial plants, and vocational literature. In the fourth category, sponsorship involves assistance to the school's athletic and recreational programs, musical events, and recognition of any form of distinctive community service in youth. Students are given loans, scholarships, and other financial assistance in many ways. Naturally the problems and opportunities of each community determine in large measure the educational services of each club. That community is most fortunate whose membership of its service organizations recognizes these opportunities and does something about them.

POINTS OF CONTACT WITH SCHOOL PERSONNEL

Public-school membership in service organizations is usually confined to members of the administrative staffs. Principals as a group report few members in these organizations, teachers scarcely at all. Limited direct contacts with the public schools must be supplemented in other ways. Organizations do report efforts to meet the deficiencies of direct contacts through helpfulness to teachers and in direct relationships to school authorities. The service clubs are to be highly commended in this far-seeing understanding of the meaning of service, especially in its educational and social relationships. One or more of these organizations may be found in nearly every sizable community. The scope and intensity of their activities must naturally depend on local vigor and leadership. It is important that all such activities be thoroughly studied and understood, and a spirit of cooperation with the public schools maintained.

¹¹ Lloyd F. Rumbaugh, *The Educational Activities of the Major Service Clubs* (Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1943).

RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES ORGANIZED FOR PROFIT

Community enterprises organized for profit and largely recreational in nature are to be found in every community. These include amusement parks, carnivals, road houses, taverns, dance halls, pool rooms, theaters, and similar organizations. With the exception of the theater, these can hardly be said to be of educational significance. Quite frequently these agencies, in their quest for profit, are not alert to their social and moral obligations to youth. In this regard they create problems for the home, the school, and the community in general, undermining desirable influences and necessitating corrective action of one kind or another.

Leisure time should be the occasion for physical, mental, social, and spiritual rejuvenation. With the proper use of leisure there is joy in anticipation, happiness in realization. The memory of a happy occasion, an exhilarating experience, and joyous living together is sweet and refreshing. Recreation should be simple, wholesome fun, participated in by all. Unfortunately, the necessity for recreation has been exploited. Many commercialized recreational activities are katabolic rather than anabolic in their effect—the human organism is broken down rather than built up. They leave one mentally and physically fatigued. Recreation often becomes just as demoralizing as labor carried to or beyond the fatigue point, perhaps even more so.

Numerous forms of recreation have now become passive for the participant, a matter of vicarious experience. Commercialized recreation is now one of our major industries, with estimates of our annual recreation bill varying from ten to twenty billion dollars. Many of these activities have a socially disorganizing effect on youth and create problems for parents and school alike. Perhaps the loss of children's (more likely their parents') hard-earned money is not nearly so serious as the demoralizing effect on their own characters. Mention should be made of the tremendous increase in the use of narcotics of various kinds among youth.

Careful consideration should be given to community problems of this nature, if they exist. Wherever possible, counteracting agencies might be developed in the public schools in order to provide healthful recreation of a similar nature, such as school-sponsored dances or carnivals.

Of occasional educational benefit may be found excursions sponsored by railroads, steamship lines, and other organizations. If properly directed, their value to the schools will depend upon the educational emphasis, proper control, and the absence of harmful influences and the profit motive. Of questionable value are school picnics promoted in **carnival**

style by amusement parks and similar enterprises. School banquets, celebrations, anniversaries, alumni programs, and athletic affairs held in similar style in amusement places, with or without the sponsorship of the public-school authorities, are of doubtful benefit and probably create school-community problems rather than do educational good. In the judgment of the writer there is only one place to hold such activities and that place is in the public school itself, under public-school auspices and control, without profit to any one concerned. Variations from this rule should be few and far between, and then only if the same degree of school control is maintained.

Here again there is necessity for careful study of those organizations in any community organized for profit with respect to the services of the school that they frustrate. Where cooperation to this desired end is not possible, outright opposition to them in the name of childhood is the only alternative.

POINTS FOR THE SCHOOL TO CONSIDER

PUPIL LOAD

The public school may be concerned in the pupil load which pupils may be carrying in the activities of many community organizations. Public-school children are often "loaded up" with offices and projects of all sorts which conflict seriously with their school work. The "willing workers," usually the better pupils, are most liable to this danger. School lessons and activities should naturally take precedence. The school may need to study this problem and adopt such rules and regulations, as well as cooperative measures, as seem adequate and fitting.

OVERLAPPING OF PURPOSES OF ORGANIZATIONS AND EXPENDITURE OF PUBLIC FUNDS

Naturally, there is much overlapping in the purposes and activities of a community's many organizations and agencies. With this overlapping public education may not be concerned, unless public funds are spent for efforts which overlap the functions and services performed by the public school, or monies to which it is rightfully entitled are taken from the public school. Through study, conference, and proper organization, it may be possible to bring about a statesmanlike planning of all services which may be classified as educational in any degree, to the end that duplication of effort may be avoided and the cause of education in general promoted.

Public educational authorities should have an awareness of the educational or social purposes and services of any community organization. As important as interpreting the work of the public schools to each such organization should be a study of its services and activities. As much as possible, those services and activities having educational significance for childhood should be related to education in general and properly coordinated with the plans and purposes of public education in the community. Any organization which through its activities contributes to the physical, mental, moral, emotional, social, and spiritual uplift of childhood is a "brother in the blood" of public education; its interests should be recognized; its purposes studied. It has an important place in any community, and its leaders should sit at the family council which directs the welfare of childhood.

On the other hand, it is possible that such well-meaning individuals as organization leaders, ambitious but immature, educationally unenlightened, sincere but ill-advised, may be brought to see that unsound educational programs as well as organizations which do harm are not in the best interests of education in general and of childhood in particular. A revision of active or proposed programs and services may be possible in the light of public-school policies and services. Such a procedure, however, may require much tact, patience, and guidance.

MAINTAINING A DIRECTORY

There should be available in each school a continuously revised directory of all community-organizations and activities. These should be properly filed with the following information: addresses, telephone numbers, names of executive leadership and other personnel, purposes, nature of activities, and types of assistance which they are likely to offer to the schools. Such a directory could be prepared as an activity of the teachers' association. It may require some community visitation in order to acquire first-hand information and some appraisal of the services rendered. Such visitation will enable the school to get to know the leaders more intimately and acquaint them with some of the school's problems.

SUGGESTIONS IN RELATION TO COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS

After a thorough review of the problems in connection with relationships growing out of organizations to be found in most communities, the following suggestions are offered for assistance in coordinating activities of this nature into a desirable home-school-community relations program:

1. The educational and social aims of all types of community organizations should be thoroughly studied and understood.

2. School authorities should be thoroughly informed of the activities and programs of these organizations planned for the year and in progress.

3. Since the aims of the church and the public school coincide at many points, efforts should be made to further these aims at points not inconsistent with constitutional and statutory guarantees and limitations, judicial decisions, and community public opinion.

4. A spirit of cooperation should prevail in any plan for the welfare of childhood and youth within the scope of the aims and purposes of all service organizations.

5. Membership in service organizations on the part of school officials and teachers is highly desirable.

6. School officials and teachers should welcome efforts on the part of community organizations to contribute to the educational and social welfare of childhood, teachers, and the public schools in general. Such efforts must recognize priority of public-school objectives and activities.

7. Duplication of effort, lack of need, or indication of it should be pointed out tactfully to those responsible for the educational activity of any community organization.

8. Complete information should be available to public-school authorities as to the individual pupil-activity load in community organizations, in order that proper guidance may be given.

9. Positive measures may have to be taken to frustrate, counteract, or strenuously oppose activities of community organizations found to be inimical to public-school objectives.

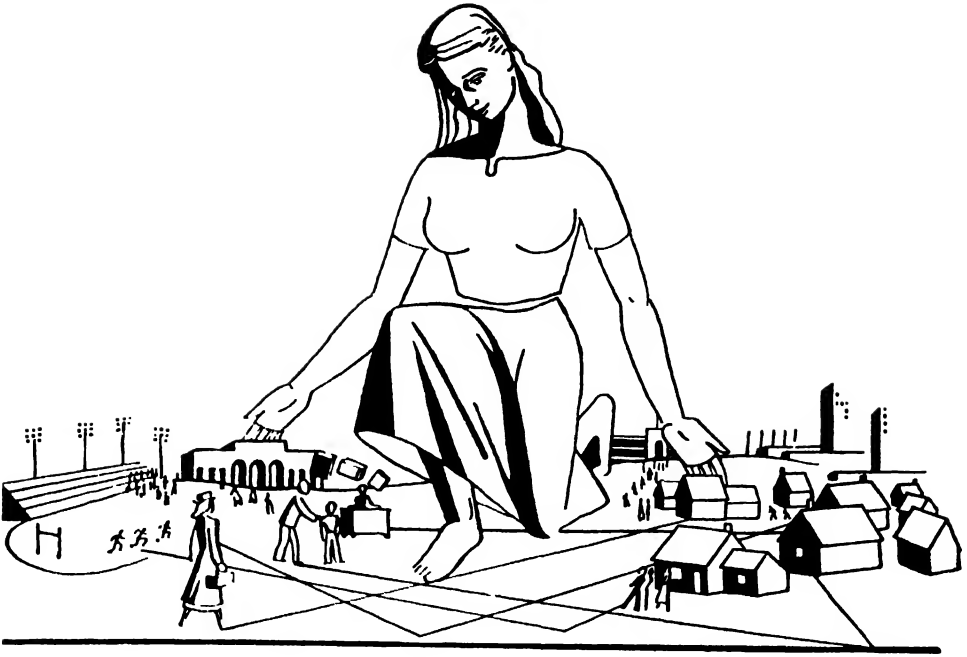
QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Obtain data from a selected city showing the number and variety of conventions held. What are the values of such conventions?
2. What are the problems growing out of relations with the church as an organization and with religious education in your community?
3. If the inculcation of spiritual values is one of the essentials of a well-rounded education, how shall we proceed to attain this purpose?
4. Since character education is definitely an aim of public education, compare the work of the public school in character building with that of other organizations in your community. How can greater cooperation be brought about?
5. Make a list of all organizations which "service" youth in your community in any way. Evaluate these services in relation to the objectives of education.
6. What other classifications of community organization and activities can you suggest? Defend your selection.
7. Is there evidence to show that modern youth is (a) overserved, (b) underserved? If so, in what particulars? (Cf. Chambers.)
8. Make a list of the ten leading youth-service organizations to be found in most communities and rank them in order of benefit. Give reasons for your answer.
9. To what extent is there an overlapping of functions in regard to youth-service organizations in your community?

10. Make a study of the per-pupil load in a selected school with respect to (1) activities within the school, and (2) activities within the community.
11. Evaluate the suggestions offered for consideration in relation to community organizations. With which do you agree? Disagree? What others should be added?

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CHAPTER 15

Social Services and Educational Planning

It was "Red Feather" month in Allison City. Mary Brown was one of the workers for the community-chest campaign for funds. She returned home tired that first afternoon and hoped that Susan would be home in time to help get dinner. John Junior was becoming quite helpful too in running errands. Mary Brown believed that each child should have his own chores to perform.

"What is the community chest?" asked John Junior that evening at the dinner table. "Well," said Mary, "it is an organization composed of voluntary agencies in our community which are trying to help those in need." "Who are some of the people it helps?" asked John. "I know," said Susan. "We had an assembly program about the community chest this morning. A speaker said we were supporting about thirty social agencies—the Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., the Association for the Blind, social settlements, summer camps, hospital clinics, boy and girl scouts, and others." "I didn't know that our scout troops got money in that way," said John Junior. "I'm for it.—Say, Daddy, how much do we give to the community chest?"

"Twenty-five dollars," was the reply. "Don't you think we could give more than that? Our scoutmaster said we needed a number of things." John thought that perhaps they could and promised to think it over.

Early New England patterns of community living which have had considerable influence in America placed large responsibilities for community welfare upon all individual citizens. The purely democratic town meeting provided the principal means whereby free discussion might take place, decisions be reached, and responsibility delegated. Appraisals and changes were the outcome of subsequent town meetings. In time the temporary organizations set up to work out the decisions of the town meeting became crystallized in pattern. Thus the community assumed some measure of responsibility for education, industrial life, health, poverty, and crime.

Modern thinking and practice are not too far removed from the days of our forefathers. Modern social living is quite complex. Our many ethnic groups and cultures aggravate our problems. Perhaps the "heart" in social living has grown less obvious with the bigness of industry, of cities, and of the things that money can buy. However, there are evidences that our communities are organizing for social-welfare purposes in order to relieve human suffering, enrich living, and bring about a happier and healthier society. This chapter will set forth the nature of such organization. It will present the nature and activities of the social services, and explain the coordinating council movement as a means of cooperative endeavor. The modern emphasis is upon community planning in the interest of all its citizens. Education is playing a large part in community planning in which the greater welfare of boys and girls receives major attention.

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION FOR SOCIAL WELFARE

One of the significant characteristics of modern social living is the extension and growth of social services designed to alleviate human suffering, enrich living, and bring about a more desirable individual and social adjustment. In the long run, man's selfishness is counterbalanced by his altruistic nature; through his church, philanthropic ventures, commercial enterprises, and governmental functions and happiness and well-being of the people are provided for.

The social agency generally functions in the community. Here a group of citizens recognize a need and band together to see that the need is met.

All social agencies might be said to have sprung from such beginnings. Sometimes the initiating group is without experience in the development and support of the project. More often, the group is made up of seasoned community leaders, both lay and professional.

Several principles must be observed in any activity planned to help people organize their resources to meet a specific need. (1) The need must be identified in terms of a single goal possible of achievement. Where the need is obvious or emergency in nature—a school fire, or a mass accident involving children—the concern becomes vital and the action must be rapid and complete. (2) Skilled leadership by a devoted individual or group is the best assurance of immediate action and achievement of results. (3) Facts must be gathered and matters of organization and procedure promptly attended to in achieving worth-while results. Vision, patience, determination, and wisdom are required throughout.

THE PRINCIPAL SOCIAL SERVICES AND THEIR FUNCTION

The pioneer work in social service has been performed by private agencies. Many of these had slender resources and ineffective leadership. Sponsoring organizations often limited the scope of the service and achievement. Ideally, a private agency should be controlled by diverse interests in the community, representing a cross section of the community. Support must be assured and the goal to be achieved possible.

Public agencies operate usually on a town, county, or city basis. They derive their authority from state law, and receive public monies, being subject to public supervision. Often their services are confined to such needs as public health, old age, dependency, and the like. Citizens participate through advisory committees or liaison relationships. Best results are rarely obtained through political connivance and passive interest.

In this text we are concerned principally with those social services which have some relationship to public education and which may assist in achieving the objectives for which public education stands. The Educational Policies Commission¹ has identified four such social services other than education: (1) public library, (2) public recreation, (3) public health, and (4) public welfare.²

PUBLIC LIBRARY

The essential function of the public library is to preserve and make

¹ *Social Services and the Schools* (National Education Association, 1939), Chap. II.

² McMillen identifies the following broad fields of social work: direct contacts, family welfare, child welfare, health, and informal education and recreation. Wayne McMillen, *Community Organization for Social Welfare* (University of Chicago Press, 1945), p. 68.

available for use the many forms of recorded knowledge. Library service is an educational service. Only a relatively small portion of the population, however, takes advantage of the library service, even in centers where libraries are generally available. The library must be equipped to serve persons of all ages and all types of materials.

PUBLIC RECREATION

Recreational opportunities are provided through the facilities of both public and private organizations, among them municipal recreation authorities, parks, settlements, clubs, churches, industrial organizations, and the public schools themselves. Public and private agencies may differ as to the nature of the program and the individuals and groups served.

PUBLIC HEALTH

The health services are designed to preserve physical well-being. The strongest defense for his own health resides within the individual himself. He is enabled to supplement that defense through his family physician, the public-health facilities, health associations, hospitals and clinics, and numerous other agencies, both public and private, rendering many types of such services. A stimulating, healthful environment, as well as the removal of hazards and environmental dangers, is most essential in maintaining sound health. Some of the services rendered—quarantine, water parity, freedom from community hazards, and safety regulations—are compulsory. Others, such as nursing service, clinics, and hospital service, may be voluntary.

PUBLIC WELFARE

Welfare generally includes all efforts to provide for the amelioration of dependency, delinquency, indigency, and any form of mental or physical maladjustment or deficiency. Public welfare comprises all forms of needful public assistance including employment, relief, special services to handicapped persons and dependents, care of delinquents, probation, parole, and social security. Public welfare service to individuals may be complete or partial in supplementing their own resources.

EDUCATION IN RELATION TO SOCIAL SERVICES

Public education draws heavily upon the services of social agencies. This is particularly true in large cities and in neighborhoods where many social problems exist. Certain of the services are more closely related to education than others.

UTILIZING SERVICES

In considering these educational relationships, the first task is to define the scope and limitations of the educational service itself. Education nourishes and sustains those values and institutions upon which society depends for its very existence. It functions through the individual, developing his body, mind, and moral and spiritual nature. The school is one instrumentality by which this may be accomplished. The ability of the school to meet the needs of the boys and girls of the community in these respects is the chief evidence of its effectiveness.

It is not to be presumed that these needs can be met by the school alone. It is necessary to utilize all services within the community which may contribute in any manner to this common purpose. All community resources should be made available and coordination with education brought about. One approach to such coordination is to identify the mutual interests of education and the social services. For example, social-welfare agencies strive to promote personal and social adjustment of children. The enforcement of school attendance may be better accomplished through cooperation between such agencies and the school. The health, physical-education, and recreational program of the schools may be partly administered through local hospitals and clinics, the gymnasiums in the Y.M.C.A., the city playgrounds and swimming pools, and the community stadium. Professional workers should come in frequent contact with school personnel, especially where children and the homes they represent are underprivileged.³

SOCIAL AGENCIES AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

In order to discover the nature of its social agencies and the extent of their services and contacts with the public schools, a study was conducted in Pittsburgh. Through a combined use of the questionnaire and personal interviews with the agencies and school authorities, a total of 91 district agencies were isolated which maintained specific educational contacts with the public schools.⁴

It was discovered that contacts are made both by the public-school authorities and the agency, though the public schools usually take the initiative and make every effort to locate the service needed. Although in large cities these agencies are well organized, it is unfortunate that

³ The reader is referred to National Education Association, *Social Services and the Schools*, for specific suggestions in regard to each of the four areas suggested.

⁴ John A. Harrison, "Social Agencies and the Public Schools" (University of Pittsburgh, 1939), unpublished manuscript.

EDUCATIONAL SERVICES OF SOCIAL AGENCIES

<i>Type of service rendered</i>	<i>Number of different agencies</i>	<i>Total number of services rendered*</i>	<i>Rank based on frequency of services rendered</i>
Child welfare and institutional care	15	305	1
Relief and personal services	12	242	2
Hospital clinical services	17	197	3
Youth organizations (character building and religious training)		159	4
Coordinating agencies (clearing houses for other agencies)	1	111	5
Child-health agencies (e.g., nursing associations)	3	106	6
Neighborhood centers	11	106	7
Civic and fraternal organizations	11	75	8
Miscellaneous	4	10	9
Total	91	1311	

* Services rendered are of two types: (1) general school service, (2) request service. Period studied: September through December.

similar services can not be extended to children in smaller communities or wherever the accident of birth or mobility places them.

THE COORDINATING (COMMUNITY) COUNCIL

Charity-organization societies may be said to be the forerunners of community councils. The movement dates from about 1909, with the organization of councils of social agencies in Milwaukee and Pittsburgh. It is now estimated that there are more than 400 such community councils in the United States, located in larger cities. In addition there are several hundred cities where the community-chest organization carries on the functions of a council.

CHARACTERISTICS

The following characteristics are present in all councils: (a) membership of groups and individuals is voluntary; (b) the purpose is to meet the needs of the people as adequately and efficiently as possible; and (c) the council *plans* and *coordinates* but does not necessarily *operate* the service directly. Councils serve as positive forces endeavoring to build community life by means of strong families, conserving human resources and preventing social disorganization.

PROGRAM

Coordinating councils may be said to have the following specific activities:⁵

1. *Coordinating activities.* They provide means for representatives to come together to share experiences and develop mutual understandings and working relationships. A spirit of teamwork is developed through working together on joint projects and in unfolding new community services.

2. *Fact finding.* Information is collected as to community needs and problems, costs, causes, and the like, and made available to all groups concerned.

3. *Joint action.* Although community service functions best through each social service, there are many occasions for joint action, working through persuasion and formation of desirable public opinion.

4. *Improving the quality of service.* Work is done toward improving standards and the facilities of services rendered.

5. *Common services.* There are many activities such as central information, directory, publicity, and research, which are possible only through some common service.

6. *Developing public understanding.* Since a coordinating council is a citizens' movement, one of its functions is to quicken public understanding of the community's problems. This can be accomplished through public meetings, press, radio, and printed materials. Coordinating councils must have the necessary staff, quarters, and community support. In larger cities, district councils may operate in geographic areas. But it must not be forgotten that a functioning social service must operate in a neighborhood where the need exists.

Public education must be actively represented in the coordinating council, being vitally concerned with those aspects of the program which have significance for the community's children. In smaller communities, greater responsibility for many of these activities will rest on public education, because of the absence of a functioning agency. Since the education of the whole child in his total environment is essentially a community function, the necessity for cooperation is quite obvious.

OTHER MEANS FOR COOPERATIVE ACTION

SOCIAL-SERVICE EXCHANGE

The purpose of the social-service exchange is to assist social agencies in coordinating their services to individuals. Growing out of the relief movement, it solicits information, serves as a clearing house, and prevents duplication of effort.

⁵ *Social Work Year Book* (Russell Sage Foundation, 1949), p. 150-157.

CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK

The social-work program is greatly stimulated through opportunities for social workers and laymen interested in social welfare to share experiences, consider and discuss social problems, report the results of studies, raise questions, and offer suggestions and recommendations. As an outcome, definite plans of action may be agreed upon for the solution of prevailing social problems. Conferences may be local and regional, state, national, and international. Most social workers favor these conferences as an effective means to stimulate action.

THE COMMUNITY CHEST

Although public social agencies receive their support from public funds, private social agencies must depend for their support upon the good will and generosity of the citizens of the community. The community chest was organized to pool the efforts of these agencies in raising funds. The movement has developed in an annual affair, essentially a local project led by local citizens, with the funds dispensed in the community. A financial goal is set up through the collaboration of the agencies involved. Suitable publicity and the means of collection of funds are provided. Distribution of the funds collected is governed by policies and practices previously established. One of the problems of the support of social agencies through the community chest is increasing competition of independent welfare bodies, such as Red Cross, American Cancer Society, and National Tuberculosis Association. Public-school leadership is generally conspicuous in community-chest campaigns.

PUBLIC INTEREST IN COMMUNITY WELFARE

In this chapter we have been concerned with those needs of the people of a community which are the concern of everyone. The *general welfare* is the responsibility of all the citizens. Social disorganization in a community, whether through poverty, delinquency, broken homes, disease, or catastrophe, is reflected in the lives of all its citizens, whether they consciously admit it or not. A poor or ill-adapted educational system is in like measure a reflection on all the people, unless by force of circumstance they can do nothing about it.

A sound school-community relations program is needed in any coordinated community effort to improve social living. Such a program, considered in this light, has three major purposes: (1) to see that the people understand the needs of their community and the problems which

they must solve together, (2) to develop desirable attitudes of all citizens and obtain greater cooperative effort, and (3) to motivate into action plans for the improvement of their schools, obtain better living conditions, abolish child labor, or to set up a recreation program for the youth. We should also note that our educational problems cannot be considered apart from these problems, since one problem may be fundamentally associated with another.

FOUNDATIONS AND COMMUNITY TRUSTS

NATURE AND SCOPE

Because of their growing strategic importance in stimulating and supporting welfare as well as educational activities, mention should be made of the activities and programs of foundations and community trusts. These are defined as instruments for the devotion of private wealth for the common good. They have grown rapidly in recent years, the Russell Sage Foundation reporting, in 1946, 505 such foundations with assets of more than \$50,000 each. The United States Department of the Treasury, however, estimates a total of more than 10,000, if one includes smaller family trusts. Community trusts constitute a special class of foundation concerned with social welfare but subject to some form of community control and usually operating within a restricted area.

The activities of foundations and trusts are widespread and varied. Considerable sums go to education in some form. Religious activities and concern for health, poverty, recreation, and general welfare—all come within the scope of their objectives. They are often interested in experimentation, in providing funds for worthy activities for which no other funds may be available. Special mention should be made for efforts to improve living conditions, and especially educational facilities, in below-standard communities in southern states.

Illustrative of community improvement programs supported by foundations is the Sloan experiment in Kentucky—an attempt to improve dietary practices in selected communities through the education of children. Since school facilities were inadequate in meeting these needs, suitable materials pertaining to diet were introduced into the school curriculum. It was soon discovered that other skills and knowledges had to be developed. The teacher had to be educated for new tasks and community cooperation had to be developed. The report of the experiment⁶

⁶ Maurice F. Seay and Leonard E. Meece. "The Sloan Experiment in Kentucky," *Bulletin Bureau of School Service*, Vol. XVI, No. 4 (June 1944).

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points out such home and community projects as gardening, poultry raising, truck gardening, canning, disease control, and public health. Educational facilities were improved, and the general tone of community living was raised.

COMMUNITY PLANNING AND THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

Community planning may be described as the process of determining together the kind of community we would like for all our people. What information is needed to plan profitably? How can we coordinate our physical, economic, social, cultural, and educational resources with our needs? How can we make living more beautiful, more satisfying, more interesting? What can education do to contribute to this end? How can a community determine its desirable objectives and achieve them with a master plan covering the years to come?

AREAS OF COMMUNITY PLANNING

In the space available here we can merely identify certain areas of community planning with which education is most concerned. A modern system of highways is one of the first essentials, in order solve transportation, traffic, and parking problems. Parks and recreation areas must receive major consideration. Existing hazards and difficulties induced by smoke, lack of safety measures, industrial blight, railroads, and the like must be removed. Vices arising out of social "cesspools" must be eliminated. Population densities should be adjusted. A careful study should be made of public-utility needs. The location of schools and all public buildings is very much a part of community planning, as much as is their architectural construction and artistic appearance.

ACTIVITIES WITHIN THE SCHOOL

Existing schools must be carefully appraised as to utility, and contemplated schools planned in the light of present and future needs. Provision should be made in the school building for those activities in which all the people may be concerned. The following is a partial list: auditorium meeting rooms for councils and committees, libraries, lounges, offices, medical and dental clinics, cafeteria, shops as needed, facilities for art, music, science, boy scout and similar youth activities, physical education and recreation, photography, dramatics, and speech, home economics, and agricultural activities, possibly a swimming pool, playgrounds, and gardens. The modern school should develop a program based on the needs and resources of the community or neighborhood. Often, owing

to limited funds, choices may have to be made as to many of the features to be included.

The measure of success of a community school is the extent to which the community makes full use of its facilities. This will depend, in turn, upon its convenience, utility, atmosphere, appearance, administration, and the extent to which the needs of the community have been met. Community planning must take into consideration those unmet needs represented by family life, public health, the library, and other welfare and social problems. Here is the community's real opportunity.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Make a study of the activities, leadership, and effectiveness of the social agencies which function in your community.
2. Compare modern community cooperation with that of a pioneer community.
3. Evaluate the services and effectiveness of public and private social agencies. Compare examples of each in some detail.
4. Rank the following groups of social services as to their relation to public education: (1) library, (2) public health, (3) welfare, (4) recreation.
5. Evaluate several plans of community cooperation which include a community coordinating council. (See *Educational Index* for examples.)
6. Outline a plan for the development of a coordinating council for your community.
7. How would you proceed to set up a program for such a council by surveying the needs of your community?
8. Compare two or more communities as to their interest in community welfare. Be specific.
9. What communities have you observed which have set about to plan intelligently for community living? Discuss their plans.

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CHAPTER 16

The Larger Community

FOR MANY YEARS the State Educational Association had held its annual meeting during the Christmas holidays. The past year had been a troublesome one for the teachers, and many problems were to come before the association for discussion. The teachers were insisting on higher salaries to meet the rising cost of living. Now that the teachers had secured a reasonable tenure law, they were afraid that a bill would be introduced to establish merit as an essential feature of the salary and tenure laws. To this the local teachers' association was unanimously opposed. Several members of the school board felt that the tenure law favored the teachers too much and were demanding some means of eliminating a few incompetent and "trouble-making" teachers.

When the state association met, the teachers discovered that their problems were common in other states. The president of the National Education Association told of efforts to obtain federal funds for education. The chairman of the National Citizens' Commission urged greater interest on the part of laymen in each community to protect and advance

the public schools. The governor championed the cause of public education and promised to fulfill his party's promises to increase teachers' salaries and promote consolidation. But most of all, the teachers were profoundly impressed by the speaker from UNESCO, who told them of educational conditions abroad. The association adjourned in a serious vein. Most of the teachers returned to their classrooms feeling better concerning their problems and grateful for the opportunity to serve the boys and girls.



The boundaries of local community interest have been gradually extended in ever widening circles. Education has become a function of each state, whose people, through their legislatures, control and determine the kind of education they desire. The state department of education as well as other governmental agencies is associated directly or indirectly in the control and administration of the school. Professional organizations of state-wide scope and influence may be found in every state. Through their activities they touch education in every community.

Although education will remain a function of each state and of the individual communities, it is quite evident that a national educational consciousness is developing, owing largely to the inequalities among states of educational facilities and needs. Some evidences of this deepening national educational consciousness are the national educational movements, the equalization of educational opportunities, federal support of schools, the means of communication in which education has a part, and the educational activities of national organizations. More and more it is apparent that many of our more pressing educational problems must be solved through national effort.

Even more significant is the recognition of a larger community, based on international brotherhood, the need for achieving lasting peace, and the promotion of international good will. The ever-widening circles of community living eventually comprehend all men. Perhaps the most significant social movement of all time was the UNESCO conference in December 1946, when 43 participating nations committed themselves to cooperation for better mutual understanding and for peaceful adjustment of their objectives and their activities. These nations are consciously preparing to educate their people for citizenship. This chapter is an attempt to point out this larger community and to indicate the scope and influence of organizations and movements concerned with education in these larger spheres. Perhaps this larger community and its problems present public relations with its greatest challenge.

EDUCATION AND THE STATE

TRANSITION TO STATE SCHOOL SYSTEMS

From the beginnings of our national existence, parents and patrons have conceived relationships with the public schools largely in terms of immediate educational contacts. Education to them has meant little more than that related to the near-by schoolhouse. Even the dreams of our forefathers that universal education would become the means of safeguarding democratic institutions and government scarcely had meaning for more than a few citizens in any community.

The gradual permeation of the ideals of American democratic government began producing educational returns within a generation or more after the American Revolution. The educational ideals of Jefferson and his contemporaries could not long be disregarded. Recently we have begun to realize the educational leadership and tremendous energy and influence of Horace Mann and Henry Barnard in a period which Cubberley aptly describes as a period of the "great awakening."¹ State school systems were established in rapid succession in the several states,² and the principle of state control and supervision recognized. With these state school systems organized under the new principles of compulsory attendance and support and state and county supervision, community educational consciousness extended across local barriers—not, however, without bitter opposition and intense feeling in many areas. Indeed, it required years in many states before the benefits of so much as a free public-school elementary education were extended to all children.

EDUCATION AS A STATE FUNCTION

Since public education through the years has come to be universally recognized as a direct function of the state, in legal theory the public school organized to carry out this function is a state institution. As Edwards has pointed out, public education is not merely a function of government; the very essence of government includes public education as an indispensable element.³ In order to carry out the intent of the performance of this function, the state may and does limit the authority of

¹ Ellwood P. Cubberley, *The History of Education*, p. 691.

² Cubberley, *ibid.*, Chap. XXVI; Edgar W. Knight, *Education in the United States* (Ginn and Co., 1929), Chaps. IX, X.

³ Newton Edwards, *The Courts and the Public Schools*, p. 1. The reader is referred to Chapter I of this text for an illuminating statement of the relation of the school to the state.

the parent over the child in many aspects. Moreover, the state has the power to exercise other fundamental functions of government in achieving its educational purposes, such as certain attributes of the police power, the power to tax, and regulatory activities.

Subject, of course, to such limiting factors as have been established by the federal constitution, Congress, and decisions of the United States Supreme Court, the nature and scope of education in each state is determined by state constitutional mandate and limitation. The legislative assembly under that mandate or limitation enacts laws for the organization and performance of the educational function in that state.

LOCAL INFLUENCING FACTORS

Now it is interesting to note that the community development of public education antedated the state organization of education. Present patterns of community educational organization have been influenced by earlier religious, political, economic, and social conceptions and attitudes. When state constitutions were adopted and state school systems organized, many of these community patterns remained quite discernible. In fact, although amenable to state supervision and control, the nature, scope, and supervision of the local educational pattern seemed to be retained in the community. Not only did many state laws recognize certain aspects of local autonomy, but enforcement of state mandates has quite often been made a matter of local expediency.

Through the years, degrees of local autonomy have been retained which have considerably influenced both the form and operation of public education. This is abundantly illustrated in the New England town, with its town meetings, the Pennsylvania township system, with its powerful local school boards, the county school systems of the South, and the district systems of the Middle West. When state school systems were organized or extended, supervision and control often came into sharp conflict with deep-seated local traditions and attitudes as to education. In some states, the state authority gained a certain ascendancy. In others, local control has been markedly present. The traditional patterns of local organization and control have become pretty well fixed in many states, changes taking place only under economic stress or social necessity. In most states, however, there is a discernible tendency toward the development of more complete school systems with greater educational opportunities for all the children. To accomplish this, larger geographical communities are formed through school-district consolidation. This movement is growing rapidly.

AREAS OF FUNCTION

The areas of function of a state in relation to education have become well established. These generally include determination of the general educational pattern for the state as a whole, a minimum educational program for all the children of the state, degrees of supervision and support to make this minimum program possible, leadership and assistance in determining desirable goals of further endeavor, interpretation of the present philosophies, values, conditions, and needs of the public schools, and the exercise of such authoritative regulation as may be consistent with state policy and tradition. Within these areas, however, there is discernible shifting towards greater state supervision.

ATTITUDES TOWARD CHANGE

In any community, considerable emphasis must be laid upon a proper understanding of the state's educational philosophy and policies. This would seem to be particularly significant when local problems and issues arise, or when proposals are advanced for educational progress. Static and dynamic forces are at work and, all too often, the static forces immobilize the latter. Democracy is deeply rooted in American thinking, especially as it concerns the public schools. To many people, as they see the advancing strides of state and federal control of other governmental functions, the *last stronghold of local control relates to public education*. State efforts to correct an antiquated and often intolerable local-support system, the lengthening of age and term periods of schooling, and proposals for mergers involving elimination of some local board of education and the establishment of a system of bus transportation which removes their children from immediate parental supervision are viewed with mixed feelings. Even where legislative educational progress of an advanced nature has been made in many states, it is often nullified by inaction or by subsequent reaction.

DESIRABLE SERVICES OF A STATE EDUCATIONAL AUTHORITY

It is along the following lines that an efficient state educational authority can render service of a high order: planning wisely for the state school system as a whole; interpreting the changing social needs in terms of a more desirable educational program; pointing sympathetically, and in language that can be understood, to community shortcomings and deficiencies; coordinating organizations and institutions of the state which have any educational interest with a program of adequate support of

public education; administering state regulatory activities fairly and efficiently and without political bias; keeping a finger on the community educational pulse through sympathetic rather than autocratic contacts; directing research activities in the interests of more desirable educational facilities for all the youth; planning a program of school support sufficient to meet the adopted educational program; cooperating with federal agencies, state educational associations, and other organizations with educational aims; and seeking constantly to provide more adequate and desirable educational opportunities for all children.

Within recent years there has been an observable disposition to increase the state's direct control over the educational processes. Through an enlarging educational program, increased state support, shifting administrative control stateward, assumption by the state of many functions formerly performed by local districts, majority-party dominance of educational functions, and increased federal participation in education through state channels, the authority of the state seems to be increasing rapidly.

Although many of these movements are undoubtedly forward-looking and seem to portend well for education, the writer is in accord with Moehlman⁴ when he warns that

Many current tendencies toward greater centralization of power within the state authority to the detriment of local responsibility represent very doubtful and dangerous ventures which, if continued, may destroy almost entirely the concept and practice of the independent school state.

It is a movement to be pondered carefully.

RESPONSIBILITY OF THE STATE IN SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Since education is a function of a state, it is obvious that the state educational authority must exercise responsibility for leadership in developing the best possible program for the boys and girls. Naturally this leadership is colored by the educational philosophy which through the years has characterized the relations of the state authority with the local community in that state. Then there are limitations of the state constitution, existing laws, and the quality and vigor of the leadership itself. There is always the constant necessity of acquainting the people of the state with current educational conditions, of setting up the best possible

⁴ Arthur B. Moehlman, *Social Interpretation*, p. 266.

program to meet these conditions, and of striving earnestly to see that this program is first adopted and then administered and supported wisely.

LEGAL LIMITATIONS

Legal requirements and limitations must of necessity be considered in determining the part a state's directing forces may play in regard to the community. When local problems occur, the state's educational officer may be directed by law to perform a mandated function; or he may be limited in his assistance through lack of authority, especially where powers are delegated to local school authorities.

The nonperformance of local educational functions may require, under the law, state intervention and supervision—as, for example, where a board of education refuses or neglects to provide proper educational facilities. Here there may be a wide variety of possibilities for state assistance and direction. The vigor and sagacity of state leadership will usually determine its effectiveness.

POLICIES

The formation of an educational policy for the state as a whole would appear to be the first step. Such a policy should be constructed by educators and laymen cooperating under state-directed leadership. Immediate goals should be clearly discernible as well as attainable. Everyone's having a part in the attainment of the goals is necessary to a happy relationship. A feeling that the educational directing group consists of leaders and not bureaucrats is of outstanding importance. These officials should leave the comfort of their office chairs long enough to make local contacts and study local community problems, offering sympathetic and practical solutions. Means for the dissemination of adequate information should be studied. A reasonable enforcement of state laws, a program of attainable standards, and a recognition of the place of local autonomy in education should have a place in the policy.

The state's educational policy must be clearly within the legal framework as determined by the legislature. At the same time, educational leadership must seek constantly to improve educational standards and work closely with those who are in a position to give greatest assistance.

ORGANIZATION AND PROGRAM

To achieve educational objectives and carry out established public-relations policies, an effective state organization is essential. There should be a directing head, with each member of his organization fitted to do a particular job. Only those persons best fitted to do so in the state organ-

ization should be permitted to make public appearances. Poor speakers and poor contacts do much to hinder confidence in the state's program. Responsibility for those aspects of the program requiring specific skills, such as radio talks, publications, addresses, consulting centers and the like, should be fixed and limits of action determined. Confusion, resulting from overzealousness on the one hand and timidity, misunderstanding, and misinformation on the other, is a regrettable and all too frequent occurrence, especially in those states where staff turnover is large and frequent, or where political and other considerations take precedence over sound educational statesmanship.

A program of public-school relations for a state might be selected from the following:

1. *Public information*—concerning the educational functions administered directly by the department.

2. *Publications*—such as bulletins, curriculum materials and reports, reports of the research service, proceedings of meetings, catalogues, official reports suitably illustrated and interpreted, and department forms.

3. *News releases*—contacts with the various press services concerning releases of pertinent information, contacts with professional publications, such as state and the National Education Association, mimeographed materials, and correspondence.

4. *Speakers*—designated representatives of the department to attend conferences and conventions, explain policies, conduct forums, and seek constantly to build up better contacts and understanding.

5. *Special services*—maintaining mailing lists, collecting materials, gathering information for addresses, editing, proofreading, and revising, maintaining a clipping service, conducting interviews and conferences, reviewing books and pamphlets, maintaining informational service with other state departments, keeping minutes, and distributing official publications and perhaps forms.

6. *Consultation groups*—educational as well as lay, for the formulation of educational policies. The public-relations division may well be assigned the responsibility of arranging for these conferences in cooperation with other staff members.

7. *School activities*—demonstrations and exhibits, as at fairs, arranging materials for special days and weeks, school libraries, school journeys, geological field trips, special activities of summer schools, curriculum activities and materials, and youth conferences. Many contacts may be necessary with scholastic organizations such as 4-H clubs, scouts, Future Farmers, and farm shows.

8. *Professional organizations*—state educational associations, personnel and publications, state libraries, state historical associations, and other official bodies.

9. *Other state contacts*—school-director associations, athletic associations, parent-teacher associations, women's clubs, American Legion, and

patriotic, religious, social service, and civic organizations. Unless otherwise directed, requests from these organizations should clear through the public-school relations division.

10. *National contacts*—United States Office of Education, organizations within the National Education Association, National Congress of Parent-Teacher Associations, American Council on Education, and many other such groups.

Perhaps no other staff member of the department will need to have such a wide knowledge of his state and of education or make as many contacts, both within and outside the department, as the director of the public-school relations division. He will have to be a person who can get along easily with people, a journalist, a good speaker, one who understands education, and especially one with the knack of getting things done.

PUBLICATIONS AND ACTIVITIES

The state's educational authority is responsible under the laws for many types of publications. Reports are received from the various districts and the resulting information disseminated throughout the state. Some of these should clear through his office. Many states publish a wide variety of bulletins, periodicals, and circulars. Through surveys, news releases, educational journals, and mimeographed materials, the local community can be kept properly informed of the state's educational progress.

Activities of a state department of education having public-relations values include the radio; speaking engagements and demonstrations before all types of state organizations; activities at conventions, conferences, and lay groups; exhibits of school work; and participation in committee work, lay organizations, state associations, and national organizations. Here it should be emphasized that the discerning state leader keeps a finger on the pulse of lay organized thinking and activities through personal contacts of all types with their leaders, organs, and conferences. These activities should be directed towards a fulfillment of the state's educational objectives and in accordance with adopted policies.

EDUCATIONAL RELATIONSHIPS OF THE LEGISLATIVE PROCESS

Many educational relationships emerge as a direct outcome of the legislative process. Members of the state legislature are drawn from many walks of life. They are citizens of communities, and many of them have children in the public schools. The very nature of their legislative positions makes them sensitive to local school conditions, especially when

school issues and matters of educational policy come before the state legislature. They are subject to pressures of all types and from many sources.

Especially during the legislative season, members of the state legislature are subject to many contacts and pressures of a state-wide nature. As a member of the majority party, a legislator is, to a degree, expected to support the administration program, which usually includes the educational program. As a member of the opposition party, he may become a free lance or a supporter of an alternative program. Special interests and pressures of the department of education receive his attention. Representatives of state educational associations or groups of teachers, chambers of commerce, tax groups—in short, interest and pressure groups of all types—strive for his notice and his vote. Through letters, resolutions, telegrams, and personal contacts, he hears frequently from “back home.” Perhaps he has his own particular interest or grudge, which he can express in the form of a bill or his vote.

EDUCATIONAL COMMISSIONS AND STATE SURVEYS

EDUCATIONAL COMMISSIONS

Within recent years many states have organized educational commissions developed largely to study educational problems, obtain information, prepare recommendations, and proposed desirable educational legislation. These commissions, sponsored by the legislature, the state educational association, or by other educational interests, touch the community at many points. Data are collected and information sought. Through addresses, bulletins, circulars, and fiscal reports, communities have an awareness of their activities and recommendations. Many local groups are called upon to support or oppose these recommendations through resolutions and personal activity.

STATE SCHOOL SURVEYS

Many of the educational commissions authorized by legislative action are commissioned by the state to make comprehensive surveys of the public schools of the state. The surveys often receive wide publicity and are directed to the citizens of the state, since the responsibility for good schools must be assumed by each citizen. It is important that all citizens be properly informed concerning the outcomes of these studies, especially since their representatives in the legislature will be called upon to consider these findings in developing the educational program.

STATE EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

Professional organizations for the advancement of education exist in every state. Various known as state teachers' or state educational associations and composed largely of teachers and others directly interested in the cause of education, they exercise a considerable influence over educational progress in the state and the preservation of gains made through the years. In 1949, 824,395 of the nation's 937,765 teachers—88 percent—were so enrolled.⁵

The first state teachers' association appears to have been organized, according to Will S. Munroe,⁶ in Rhode Island on January 28, 1845. In the same year organizations appeared in Connecticut, Massachusetts, and New York. Ten years later associations had been formed in twenty other states. In the years following, the movement grew rapidly.

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The aims and objectives of all state educational associations harmonize in most part with those of the National Education Association. Each has, without doubt, influenced the other. Specific aims in each association have been related to particular needs in each state. Generally the objectives and activities include: (1) research, (2) a program looking to the improvement of educational conditions within the state, (3) the dissemination of professional knowledge, (4) service to special groups, (5) the development of a spirit of unity among teachers, (6) publicity, (7) the general cultural developments of teachers, (8) opportunity for social development among teachers, (9) promotion of accepted ethical standards, (10) inspiration, (11) systematic and energetic promotion of the program of the National Education Association, (12) placement, (13) keeping teachers informed about association activities, (14) maintenance of teachers in hospitals and homes, and (15) legislation.

In order to accomplish these objectives, organizations are maintained by most of the associations in the capital city of the state, in separate buildings owned by the association, in the state capitol building, or in commercial office buildings. Most state associations now have full-time secretaries and headquarters staffs of various sizes to assist the elected officers in carrying out the organization plans, aims, and purposes.

⁵ *National Education Association Journal* (Sept. 1949), p. 450. In the National Education Association, 427,527, or 46 percent of the teachers, are enrolled.

⁶ "State Teachers' Associations Organized Before 1857," *Proceedings of the National Education Association* (1907), pp. 514-515.

ACHIEVEMENTS

State educational associations under competent leadership are in a strategic position to work for, as well as to preserve, the educational interests of the state. These leaders are in direct touch with the educational leaders and conditions throughout the state. They gather reliable statistics with reference to educational trends and policies. They disseminate information in regard to the best educational practices. They seek to elevate educational standards. They are in a strategic position to cooperate with the state department of education, thus working hand in hand with the directing head and educational staffs. The policies of the association, together with articles, news, and other information, can be carried to the desks of every teacher, administrator, and educational leader through the journal of the association and other published material.

Perhaps it is in the field of legislative endeavor that state educational associations have been the most potent instrumentality for educational advancement and interpretation. Through agreement upon educational policies and legislative needs at conventions and through steering committees, legislative committees, and lobbyists in direct contact with members of legislative bodies and executive leadership, they can acquaint legislators with the needs of the schools, urging the support of desirable, and the rejection of undesirable legislation; they can also acquaint the educational public at strategic times with the necessity of advances in the interest of education. Most important of the legislative accomplishments of teachers' associations appear to have been in the fields of improvement in teacher preparation and certification, changes in tax laws affecting school funds, improvements in teacher tenure and retirement laws, equalization laws, and increases in state aid. Recent activities seem to tend in the direction of teacher welfare and efficiency. In addition to these and other forward movements in education, state-education-association leadership has without doubt exercised much influence to prevent reduction of the educational efficiency of the public schools of the several states.⁷

CONVENTIONS AND PUBLICATIONS

Every state association sponsors annual and regional meetings, with sessions lasting from one to five days. These educational meetings offer fine opportunities for a proper understanding of educational aims and

⁷ For an excellent account of accomplishments of state educational associations, the reader is referred to Arthur L. Marsh, *The Organized Teachers*, published by the National Association of Secretaries of State Education Associations (1936), p. 91.

progress as well as a coordination of endeavor for the common educational good. Timely problems are discussed and these in turn are publicized through the state by means of radio, newspapers, magazines, and word of mouth of returning teachers.

The professional journals, published principally as monthly magazines by all state associations, are given wide distribution. Many other types of informatory materials are published, such as bulletins, monographs, special mimeograph materials, handbooks, leaflets, and reprints of all types. Some of these publications are designed especially for lay groups and for the general public.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

Considerable space has been devoted in this chapter to the place of the state teachers' association in the maintenance of educational relationships. Association activities touch school-community relations at many points. It is important to realize the professional nature of these activities and services and to take advantage of them wherever possible in the interests of better educational services to childhood in each community. At the same time, it is pertinent to remark that state association leadership should plan its program to reach more directly into local areas and extend such services as will seek to solve local problems and improve educational services and relationships.

LAY ORGANIZATIONS AND MOVEMENTS

Mention has already been made of lay groups which have some form of state organization and which exercise a state-wide influence on education through leadership and policies. It is well known that their activities concern the public schools at many points. Some of their leaders are staunch supporters of the public schools, their policies and programs; others assume a critical attitude and influence both state and local situations, often to the point where it is commonly believed by the public in general that the organization in question is in fact antagonistic to public education, or at least opposed to an extended educational program.

The increasing influence of these organizations can be noted from the fact that the president of a state educational association recently sought the cooperation and specific suggestions of twenty-eight organizations in that state in order to assemble a cross section of opinion of these leading organizations. The communication read in part as follows:⁸

⁸ Twenty-three Pennsylvania organizations receiving this communication were: American Association of University Women (Pennsylvania branch), American Legion (Department of

Your organization undoubtedly has a direct interest in the schools and the educational offerings of the State. Would you co-operate with us in an honest effort to assemble some conclusions regarding public education in Pennsylvania by expressing briefly and concisely the educational creed or philosophy of your organization? Constructive criticisms and remedial suggestions are more helpful than a condemnation of that which is. However, it is not our wish to deter you in any way from voicing a frank and concise opinion of the present educational situation.

Many state-wide educational movements can be traced to the influence of organizations and individuals other than those immediately related to the public schools. Outstanding examples of these organizations influencing education are the chamber of commerce and the labor organizations. With all such movements public education is deeply concerned. Quite often the extent of the influence is in proportion to the vitality of the leadership. A sensitivity on the part of the public school to these movements and programs and a better understanding of prevailing attitudes and procedures are essential.

DEVELOPMENT OF A NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL CONSCIOUSNESS

Although it does not assume any responsibility for education in the several states, the federal government has long assisted education through land and money grants, informational and research service, vocational-educational assistance, and promotion of movements designed to stimulate the educational welfare of the whole nation. Many independent educational organizations and movements have arisen within recent years which champion the cause of education in various ways. Similarly, organizations originally constituted for purposes other than education have developed national programs in relation to education. These are indications that a national consciousness is rapidly developing with respect to education.

Pennsylvania), American Medical Association (Pennsylvania branch), Association of School Board Secretaries, Business and Professional Women of Pennsylvania, Educational Salesman's Club, Patriotic Order Sons of America, Pennsylvania Bar Association, Pennsylvania Congress of Parents and Teachers, Pennsylvania Council of Churches, Pennsylvania Federation for the Merit System, Pennsylvania Federation of Labor, Pennsylvania Manufacturers Association, Pennsylvania Motor Federation, Pennsylvania State Bankers Association, Pennsylvania State Chamber of Commerce, Pennsylvania State Federation of Negro Women's Clubs, Pennsylvania State Nurses' Association, Pennsylvania State School Directors Association, Public Education and Child Labor Association of Pennsylvania, Society of Farm Women, State Federation of Women's Clubs, State Grange, State Y.M.C.A., Women's Legislative Council of Pennsylvania, Pennsylvania Real Estate Association, Pennsylvania Economic Council, Inc., and Quota Club.

The ideal of an equal educational opportunity for all children has not yet been achieved. The elevation of the educational level has progressed unequally as between urban and rural areas and as among states. Many studies and movements have revealed the inconsistencies, inequalities of opportunities, and flimsy substructures of public education in many states, even the inability to carry on in many places.

Each boy and girl would seem to be entitled to at least an adequate educational opportunity wherever the accidents of birth, status, or mobility have placed him. Education as the bulwark of democratic ideals should be preserved by a national educational movement based upon adequate financial support on a national basis. The manner and extent of this support, as well as nature and extent of proper controls relating hereto, have become national issues, however agreed we are as to the need. This situation is reflected in every community and will ultimately affect each child.

AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK

A movement most significant in American education and of increasing national importance is American Education Week. It is now observed annually throughout the nation, not only in public but also in private schools and colleges and by many community organizations. Perhaps no forward-looking movement in education has so aroused the interest and support of the schools and public alike, even from its very beginning.

The revelations of World War I as to our national educational deficiencies, together with other disturbing conditions disclosed by the 1920 census and the depression, prompted the American Legion to propose a plan for stimulating interest in the work of the schools.⁹ Through its Americanism Commission, it sought the assistance of the National Education Association in establishing an annual program in which the American people might dedicate themselves each year to the ideal of self-government based upon an enlightened citizenry.

At the Des Moines meeting of the National Education Association in July 1921, the national director of the Americanism Commission of the American Legion, Garland W. Powell, asked for the cooperation of the Association in a movement fostering true Americanism in all the schools of America. The American Legion had conceived a far-reaching ideal of better citizenship, in which education was to take a prominent position.¹⁰

⁹ Russell Cook, Address before the National Education Association, *Proceedings of the National Education Association* (1934), p. 112.

¹⁰ "American Education Week," *National Education Association Journal*, X (Dec. 1921), pp. 183-184.

Subsequently, the cooperation of the United States Office of Education was invited. American Education Week may now be said to be sponsored jointly by the American Legion, the National Education Association, and the Office of Education.¹¹

American Education Week was first observed nationally in December 1921. Backed by its sponsoring associations and officially recognized through President Harding's official proclamation, the movement received almost instant recognition and support. The National Education Association reported in 1923 that American Education Week was observed during the first week in December 1922 in almost every state and in almost every community. In 1923, it was felt desirable to change the time of observance to the week preceding Thanksgiving Day. In 1926, it was again moved to the week in which Armistice Day occurs, where it now remains. Relating it thus to a significant patriotic holiday gives it a strategic place in any program emphasizing the importance of the public school in a democracy.

Because of its national importance, American Education Week is of much significance in any program relating the public schools to the community, especially since it is observed annually. Moreover, stressing as it does all of those relationships binding the public school to those other institutions upon which democratic society is dependent for its preservation, it would seem to offer many opportunities for community interaction with the schools. Especially desirable is it to stimulate such mutual interaction by organizing a cooperating council of community leaders under the direction of a school official. Programs should be planned well in advance, with suitable publicity obtained through contests, newspapers, radio, and pupil contacts. Mottoes and slogans may be adopted which emphasize positive and constructive aspects of public education in general and the local schools in particular. Advantage should always be taken of opportunities to acquaint the general public with the work of the public schools. Each school should strive to get its patrons *into* the schools to observe its progress, and, above all, to cement those desirable relationships looking forward to cooperation for the welfare of the boys and girls.

It is pertinent at this point to call attention to the special publications and packets prepared by the sponsoring associations, especially the Na-

¹¹ Reeder points out that the immediate precursor of American Education Week was Public Schools Week promoted by the Masonic Lodges of California and observed in lodges of that state in the week commencing September 27, 1920. He gives credit to Charles Albert Adams as the father of the idea. Reeder, *An Introduction to Public School Relations*, p. 203. See also "Public Schools Week, Precursor of American Education Week," *School Life*, XII (Dec. 1926), p. 77.

tional Education Association. These can be procured from the Washington office of the Association at small cost.

In summary it may be well to point out that American Education Week should be an integral part of a general program of school-community relations. Its observance should be city- or district-wide, its programs prepared well in advance, community cooperation obtained, and a plan of appraisal of measurable results worked out. Its possibilities are not yet realized.

NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS AFFECTING EDUCATION

American citizens characteristically tend to express themselves through some form of organized effort. The purpose of the organization may be merely the expression of some mutual interest. The organization may seek to influence public opinion in order to achieve some preconceived, perhaps selfish, aim. Other purposes may be wholly altruistic in character, having in mind the common good of all. Many organized groups, originating locally, increase in scope and influence until they eventually become national movements.

Since problems of education in any particular community may be nation-wide in extent, it has become necessary to deal with them on a national basis. Many local educational crises would result disastrously to the cause of education were it not for national support. In this way the cause of education has become one of national concern. Attacks upon it, whether made on a local or a national front, must be met with this thought in mind. Nation-wide subversive propaganda against public education have aroused to action in its behalf both local educational associations and individuals and the National Education Association. Indeed there are those who would abolish free public education if they could, severely limiting its scope and services or substituting privately controlled education.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

The professional interests of public education in the United States center in the National Education Association and its many allied organizations. Growing out of the National Teachers' Association, which had been established in 1857, it was organized in 1871 as the National Education Association and received a charter from Congress in 1906. This virile organization has shown courageous leadership in behalf of public education during times of subversive and overt attacks. It has used its resources

to maintain our system of free education and to prevent efforts to undermine it. It has initiated and supported many of the movements which have given education its present significance.

The activities and influence of the National Education Association reach into the local school community in many ways. The weight of its moral influence is a strong safeguard. Its publications carry information and conviction. Its extensive research activities provide data upon which the defense of local educational needs and the expansion of facilities can be firmly based. Its conventions are attended and addressed by both lay and professional groups. Its proceedings and yearbooks provide a body of materials useful in arousing the interests of both groups. Its radio broadcasts convey timely information and create favorable attitudes. Mention has previously been made of its sponsorship of American Education Week.

Particular mention should be made of its official organ, the *National Education Association Journal*. In its pages may be found articles describing school procedures and activities throughout the nation, many dealing with school-community relations. Its editorials are timely and outstanding and deal with topics of national scope; they are often quoted by the public press. Its pages rise in defense against educational flank attacks and in advocacy of forward-looking proposals.¹² Its policy is in support of federal aid to education and other legislation helpful to public education.

OTHER EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS OF NATIONAL SCOPE

Many professional organizations of national scope which have sprung into being in recent years have become very significant to the community. The National Education Association has now become a multi-organized body whose affiliate groups include classroom teachers, elementary principals, secondary principals, supervisors, superintendents, college teachers, and others. The American Council on Education, through large money grants, has been promoting the cause of education. Educational foundations such as the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, the Russell Sage Foundation, and the Rockefeller Foundation support activities of interest to the profession and the public.

The American Federation of Teachers has a membership of 50,000 in the teaching profession, from kindergarten to college. There are 350 local units in 40 states, all affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. Its aim is to develop among associations of teachers mutual as-

¹² See, for example, Joy Elmer Morgan, "The Meaning of American Citizenship," *National Education Association Journal*, 26, No. 8 (Nov. 1927), pp. 243-246; "The Outlook for America," *N.E.A. Journal*, 27, No. 3 (March 1938), p. 65.

sistance and cooperation in raising standards and obtaining conditions for best professional service. It actively opposes, through organized labor, any attempt to curtail the public-school system, and it desires to promote the welfare of childhood in all its activities. Its publication is the *American Teacher*.

Women's national organizations have instituted educational policies. Among these are the League of Women Voters, organized throughout the country to inform the public and to exert influence in behalf of the schools, and the American Association of University Women, which, since its founding in 1852, has had for its main objective the intelligent support of public education. In its report this committee believed that the public-relations services of these and similar organizations should be better known to officials of the public schools.

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS OF NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Many organizations of national scope have developed educational programs which touch the schools at many points.¹⁸ In many instances national policies in regard to education have been adopted and a program of national scope placed in operation.

The Woman's Christian Temperance Union has long advocated close association with the public schools in fulfilling its principles. Its contacts with the public school are made through posters, essay contests, talks, motion pictures, and literature on scientific alcohol education, and through moral influence generally. Its branches, the Youth's Temperance Council and the Loyal Temperance Legion, are composed of adolescents and pre-adolescents, contacts often being made through the public schools.

The American Legion, in addition to its interest in American Education Week, has established a policy of friendly cooperation with the public schools in fostering good citizenship and character development through recognition of outstanding boys and girls, in promoting recreational opportunities, and in co-sponsoring National Boys' Week. Other patriotic and veterans' organizations, such as the Women's Relief Corporation, sponsor regularly a milk fund for children, a flag for every schoolhouse, essay contests, and similar patriotic activities.

¹⁸ Some concept of the number and complexity of organizations devoted to education can be ascertained from the *Educational Directory* for 1948-49 (Federal Security Agency) which lists 415 national and sectarian educational associations, 29 educational boards and foundations, 51 religious educational organizations, 150 state education associations, 53 state congresses of parents and teachers, 50 state library associations, and 31 international educational associations and foundations.

Raup originally listed 88 organizations related to education.¹⁴ The survey of American youth conducted by the yearbook committee of the American Association of School Administrators¹⁵ analyzed in great detail 62 private organizations and governmental agencies which have provided guidance in dealing with leisure-time activities of youth. The nature and influence of the activities of these organizations differ in each community. The necessity for a sound policy and effective program on the part of the school administration in relating these activities to an effective program of school-community relations for that community is quite evident.

There are many opportunities for desirable community relations available through national movements and such events as our national holidays. The celebration of Armistice Day brings together patriotic organizations. Their representatives' interest in, and cooperation with, the public school can be aroused and maintained under effective leadership. The national elections stimulate an interest in good citizenship and the electoral privileges. Constitution Day, Columbus Day, Flag Day, and the birthdays of great Americans can be utilized effectively for community contacts. Book Week, Clean-up Week, nationally sponsored community chests, Boys' and Girls' Weeks, and many similar movements and events can also be used to relate the school to the community. The part that each event should play in any school-community relations program is a matter for local study and decision. If the public school is to maintain the abiding interest and confidence of the public as the bulwark of democracy, every effort must be made to utilize those relationships which serve to achieve the ends of democracy in every community where the public school exists.

CITIZENS' ADVISORY COMMITTEES

Public education must be the concern of all the people. It is not enough that laws are passed and school boards are elected by the citizens to determine policies and provide for support. It is not enough that school administrators are elected to provide educational leadership. The public schools are the people's schools and the people must remain in close contact with them, assuming a rightful share of responsibility for their effectiveness, if for no other reason than to prevent dictatorship or mismanagement in any form.

One of the most effective ways to accomplish this purpose is through

¹⁴ Bruce Raup, *Education and Organized Interests in America* (G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1936). See also Grinnell, *op. cit.*, pp. 348-349, for an excellent bibliography.

¹⁵ "Youth Education Today," *Sixteenth Yearbook*, American Association of School Administrators (1938), *Appendix B*, pp. 310 ff.

citizens' advisory committees. We have already discussed the community advisory groups, representing a cross section of community occupations and interests, who come together to study the community's educational problems and to advise boards of education, administrators, and teachers. Care must be taken that these groups remain *advisory* and do not usurp legal prerogatives or become pressure groups.

On the state level a similar technique has proven highly effective. These groups may advise with regard to state educational policy, state support, needed legislation, and the relation of educational problems to social and economic conditions. The Michigan Educational Advisory Commission has been responsible for assistance in formulating goals for public education, improvement in teacher education, and increased support and better education for rural areas. The Florida Citizens' Committee has received widespread publicity for its services in obtaining better school facilities through legislation and support.

NATIONAL COMMITTEES

The developing awareness of the inequalities of school opportunities in the several states has stimulated interest in our national educational problems on the part of both lay and professional groups. The United States Office of Education has for many years assumed some leadership. The Citizens' Federal Committee on Education was first called together in 1946 to advise the Commissioner of Education on policies and programs of service to education which might be carried out through the Office of Education. This group represents the laymen's point of view and is composed of representative occupational, religious, and ethnic groups.

NATIONAL CITIZENS' COMMISSION FOR THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Unique among citizens' groups is National Citizens' Commission, formed in May 1919 to help arouse a broad public interest in the public schools throughout the nation. Disclosures of glaring defects in the schools—overcrowded classrooms, low salaries for teachers, teachers with low standards, antiquated buildings, inadequate support, and, above all, public indifference to these conditions in many places—prompted the Commission to arouse laymen to the task of facing these problems and working together for better schools. This group, in cooperation with many other groups, is emphasizing a campaign of information about our current educational conditions, improving substandard conditions, and planning a program of action. The Commission gives promise of being the most significant lay educational movement in a generation.

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL COOPERATION

Difficult as are the educational problems on the national scene, they are much more difficult when one considers what must be done to bring about international peace and understanding. Education is and will be a powerful force in getting men of all nations to live together as men of good will. Thus it becomes a new kind of diplomacy.

WORLD FEDERATION OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS

Called together by the National Education Association, the World Federation of Education Associations held its first world conference in 1925, with 600 delegates from 60 countries. The purposes were to enable its members to function together for the promotion of international cooperation through education and to make readily available to the teaching profession of all lands educational movements, events, and achievements designed to bring about international good will. This organization held biennial conferences until World War II.

UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION

The need for educational reconstruction after World War II occasioned the establishment of a permanent international organization for educational and cultural cooperation. The purpose of UNESCO was to promote collaboration among the nations through education, science, and culture in order to further universal respect for justice, law, and human rights. This organization is concerned with developing educational activities and encouraging international cooperation. Much has been accomplished through the exchange of educational services—teachers, books, and teaching materials—and the encouragement of all branches of intellectual activity. It is supported by the financial contributions of members of the United Nations.

WORLD ORGANIZATION OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION

Founded at Endicott, New York, in 1946, the World Organization of the Teaching Profession has as its purpose the discussion and development of means by which teachers all over the world can come together to advance their common interests and promote peace and understanding among nations. Those who were assembled at Endicott were convinced that the world must become *one world* in the intellectual and spiritual sense and that teachers must have a professional responsibility for guarding, extending, and imparting all the cultural heritage of mankind.

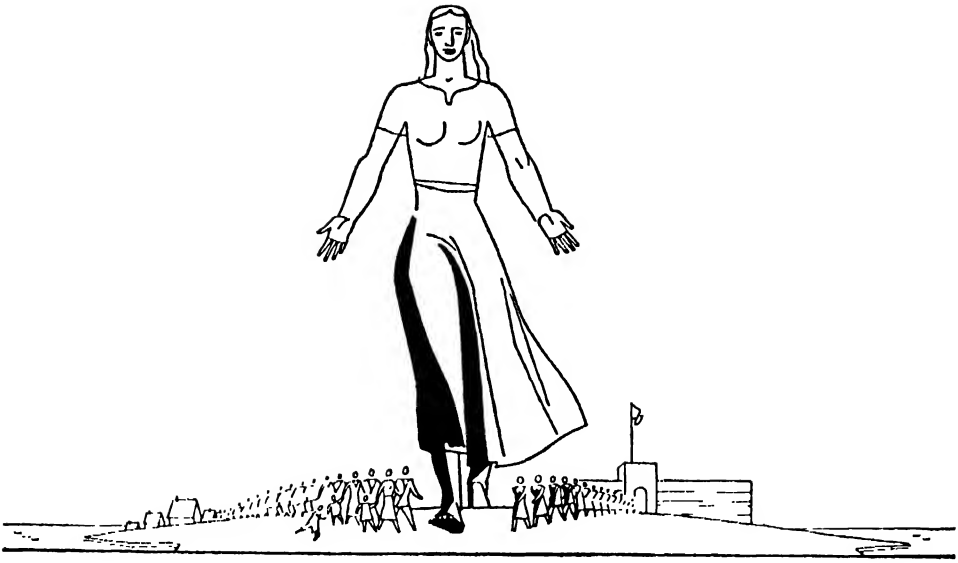
These organizations point out the role of education in bringing about permanent peace and understanding among all nations. If education has proved to be so powerful an instrument in preserving peace and developing culture within a nation, there is every reason to believe that it will serve the same purpose among nations. Education may yet succeed where militarists and diplomats have failed.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Study carefully the underlying philosophy of education in your state as exemplified by legislative policies and traditional attitudes.
2. Study your own state in regard to the relationship of local traditions and attitudes and state leadership and policies.
3. Indicate specifically the nature of the educational progress made in your state within the past decade. Show the influence of dynamic and static forces in relation to this progress.
4. Is the present tendency toward greater centralization of power within the state educational authority a help or hindrance to educational progress generally? Why?
5. To what extent are the members of your state legislature sensitive to community educational needs and progress?
6. What have been the educational accomplishments of educational commissions or school surveys in your state within the past decade? To what extent have they influenced legislation?
7. Make a survey of state organizations in your state which contact the public schools in any way and evaluate their services and their attitudes toward public education.
8. Can you indicate five or more developments which have given impetus to an increasing national educational consciousness?
9. Along what lines has the development of a national consciousness in education made for a more adequate educational opportunity for all children?
10. What are some observable outcomes of American Education Week for the advancement of public education?
11. Criticize the statement: "America is over-organized in regard to organizations and movements related directly and indirectly to education."
12. The Women's Christian Temperance Union has been denied access to the public schools in some communities. Justify or condemn the reasoning usually offered.
13. In what different ways does the Office of Education contact your school system directly or indirectly?
14. Evaluate the services of the National Education Association and its allied departments as public school relations agencies.
15. Evaluate the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization from the following standpoints: (1) purposes, (2) accomplishments, (3) future. What does it offer for education in each community?

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CHAPTER 17

Organized Parent-Teacher Cooperation

"THE MEETING will please come to order," said Mr. Hayes, president of the Allison City Parent-Teacher Association. "The secretary will please read the minutes." Mr. Hayes was a quiet, pleasant-mannered father of two young children who were in the Lincoln School. Miss Stevens, the principal, liked him and his pretty wife because they always seemed so sensible with their children. Things seemed to move along in a business-like manner when Mr. Hayes presided.

"The members of this association will recall," remarked Mr. Hayes when the business had been dispatched, "that at the October meeting there was considerable discussion concerning a community school for Allison City. You remember the points brought out by our speaker on that occasion. All of you were asked to think about this matter. I understand that the teachers have been discussing it at their meetings. And it was presented by our superintendent at the last meeting of Rotary. Have you any remarks to make on the subject?"

John and Mary Brown sat well up toward the front of the room. John

arose to speak. "Mr. President, I am one taxpayer who has always been critical of our high taxes for schools, or what I thought were high taxes. I have changed my mind since hearing the superintendent's address at Rotary. I am for good schools. I know good schools, like good clothes, cost money, but what is there more important than the education of our children? My wife agrees heartily with me and I want to go on record for good schools."

The superintendent addressed the chair. He mentioned the school survey and said that more would be accomplished if they would await the results of a thorough examination of the school system and a comprehensive report of the visiting committee. There were many questions and remarks. Even Bill Harrison, long the thorn in the flesh of the superintendent, arose to say that the Rotary speech of the superintendent was the most sensible speech he ever heard the superintendent make, even though he didn't agree with everything he said.

Mrs. Sanson, from the South Side, moved that the association endorse the community-school idea. The motion was unanimously carried. The association adjourned to the cafeteria for refreshments and a social hour. Mrs. Brown was on the committee.



In the days when formal education consisted of little more than vigorous training in reading, writing, and arithmetic, some singing, Bible reading, and homely advice on virtuous living, all accompanied by an austere discipline, it was not difficult for parents to understand what the teacher was trying to accomplish. The home was a social force of considerable significance. Where the teacher was welcome in the home, a cooperative relationship prevailed. Changed economic and social conditions within recent generations have brought about changes in the educational functions of both the home and the school. The school has gradually taken over more and more of the former functions of the home; closely cooperative relationships do not generally exist.

Common agreement is rare as to the respective roles of the home and the school in the educational processes. Both the home and the school differ in stages of development and attitudes towards education. Except where state school laws attempt a definition, the functions of each are not clearly defined. The problem is further complicated by the exigencies of a changing social order with all its implications for change to both the home and the school.

The need for greater understanding and cooperation in regard to the

relationship of the home and the school is apparent. Not only must the function of each be clarified and coordinated, but opportunities should be studied and developed which will permit a larger measure of the co-operative relationship. It is the purpose of this chapter to analyze the nature, extent, and possibilities for organized parent-teacher cooperation.

EARLY UNORGANIZED PARENT-TEACHER CONTACTS

In Chapter 3, considerable discussion was devoted to contacts of the home and community with the earlier schools. These early evidences of community interest in the public schools indicate little organized effort. It is true that the schools responded to public opinion. Yet virtue became its own reward, for the master, good or poor, commanded a considerable respect from the parents because there were few who could match his knowledge and his skill. With the minister he exercised a community influence of no small consequence. Organized parent-teacher cooperation was yet to come.

In many schools parent-teacher contacts are still unorganized. Whatever personal contacts with the home exist are largely of a disciplinary nature—to report some infraction of the rules of the school or to require the parent to come to the school to settle some pupil difficulty. Other contacts may result from irregular attendance, poor scholarship, or perhaps from an invitation to participate as a spectator in some school event. Since most older children heartily dislike having parents visit the school on any occasion, it is apparent that some organized effort is needed to bring about the parent-teacher cooperation necessary in the progress of the child.

PARENT-TEACHER CONTACTS IN THE PRESCHOOL PERIOD

Up to the age of six years the child is normally under the educational direction of the home and those other community activities with which he may come in contact. He learns much during this period. The educational significance of the preschool period is great. Biologically, since it comes first in the life of the child, this period influences all subsequent development and determines largely the nature of growth and character. Problems of physical development, hygiene, and childhood diseases are of profound significance in these early years. Psychologically, the influences of the preschool period are interesting and challenging. A great deal is learned before the age of six which the school must build upon,

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supplement, or counteract. At the administrative age of six, when most children are admitted to the public school, the neophyte is an interesting citizen, physically, mentally, and emotionally.

COOPERATING AGENCIES

Recognition of the significance of these early years in relation to public-school entrance and its problems has stimulated much study. Many agencies and institutions—children's bureaus, state and city health departments, infant-welfare activities of all types, prenatal clinics, community classes in infant hygiene for girls and young women, baby-week campaigns, summer round-ups, and many other similar activities and movements—have been developed with which the public school should be concerned and with which there has been a spirit of encouraging public-school cooperation. Community nursery schools and kindergartens have afforded organized development and care.

PARENT INTEREST

Parent education thus related to child welfare has been the direct outcome of the movement to reduce infant mortality and care for early childhood. Changed attitudes toward children, knowledge of their physical, mental and emotional make-up, and applications of scientific data on child development are but a few of those aspects of parent education with which the home and the school have been concerned.

Parent interest begins when the child enters school and faces new experiences and new problems. Usually there is an intense desire to learn more about the child, especially on the part of the mother. Some cooperative relationships are set up to bring together those who may be concerned in the education of little children. If the child attends a kindergarten, his mother probably visits it occasionally and participates as a spectator in exercises marking the seasons or the close of the year. At the clinics she is a passive observer. Parents conform to required health examinations as a matter of course. Perhaps the home of every parent of young children contains much literature concerning them.

SHARING THE CHILD

When a child begins his public-school experience, the parent is faced with the new problem of sharing the child, his time, and his affections for the greater part of the day with a new individual, the teacher. Formal education is now beginning to take place.

It is perhaps in this desire to retain an interest in the educational development and welfare of the child, rather than in an earnest effort to

cooperate in his development, that the basis has been laid for those organized efforts which have become the beginnings of a great movement in parent-teacher cooperation. Yet, out of the interest motive has come a need for friendly cooperation and mutual understanding of the part both the parent and the teacher are to play in the educational process which the state has decreed shall now take place. Difficult education problems of the past decade have made the need for this cooperation more discernible.

THE PARENT-TEACHER MOVEMENT

The beginnings of the parent-teacher movement seem to date back to 1855. Apparently it grew out of the development of the kindergarten movement,¹ which, because of the tender age of little children, naturally created a solicitous interest of mothers and teachers through a common feeling that more could be accomplished by working together. Many types of organizations—parents' leagues, mothers' unions, preschool clinics, and reading councils—arose as a result of these early mothers' meetings. These organizations developed in the main without a guiding philosophy and perhaps with no definite relation to one another.

The hearty response which Mrs. Alice McLellan Birney received in 1896 to her suggestion that a "Congress of Mothers" be formed to discuss the need for broader opportunities for child development indicates rather clearly that many other persons throughout the nation were thinking along similar lines. Evidently what was needed was just such educational leadership as Mrs. Birney supplied through the generous financial assistance of Mrs. Phoebe A. Hearst. An outcome of the convention held as a result of her suggestion, was the foundation of the National Congress of Mothers on February 17, 1897, with Mrs. Birney as the first president. This movement brought together these unrelated organizations into one body with common purposes.

The movement spread because there was popular appeal in the idea of a trained parenthood. Informal meetings of parents and teachers, then to be found in many localities, became the nucleus around which teachers, mothers, and a few fathers became interested in child welfare, especially where evening meetings were held. As a result, the organization changed its name in 1908 to the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher

¹ The first kindergarten in the United States was a German kindergarten, established at Watertown, Wisconsin, in 1855, by Mrs. Carl Schurz, a pupil of Froebel. The first English-speaking kindergarten was opened privately in Boston, in 1860, by Miss Elizabeth Peabody. By 1880 there were some 300 kindergartens and ten training schools in cities of thirty states. See Cubberley, *The History of Education*, p. 766.

Associations. Again in 1924 the cumbersome title was changed to the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

INFLUENCE OF CHANGED CONCEPTIONS OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

Some one has facetiously made the remark that the parent-teacher movement was founded on the fact that whenever two or more mothers gather together, they talk about children and want to know more about them. Students of the parent-teacher movement can understand its remarkable growth by noting the significant educational transition of education objectives that took place at the turn of the century and since. Older preconceptions of education as education *for* something—success in business, citizenship, making a living, preparation for life, religious or some other form of indoctrination, fitting for college (that is, some specific college), academic liberation, and similar concepts of an informed conformity to a preconceived pattern—began gradually to give way to a realization of the necessity for educating the whole child. The writings of Eliot,² Dewey,³ O'Shea,⁴ Bagley,⁵ and Tyler⁶ sounded tocsins of a new approach to the educational process through parent-teacher cooperation not discerned in the early days of the closing-day exercises. Because the child "knows" so much, is he really developing into an integrated personality? Rather he is a physical being, an emotional being, a spiritual being all in one. While he is learning, growth is taking place in all his being. This development of the little child so that he is properly integrated to take his place in a changing social order has become the principal study of parents and teachers wherever they are associated.

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF A PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION

The primary objective of the parent-teacher association is that of fostering the desirable educational welfare of childhood in any school community. Its ideals are nonpolitical, nonsectarian, noncommercial, and entirely altruistic. It endures no commercial enterprise; no one associated with it may use its influence to further his personal ambitions in any manner. It does not seek to control the administration of a school or to direct its policies.

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers declares itself to be

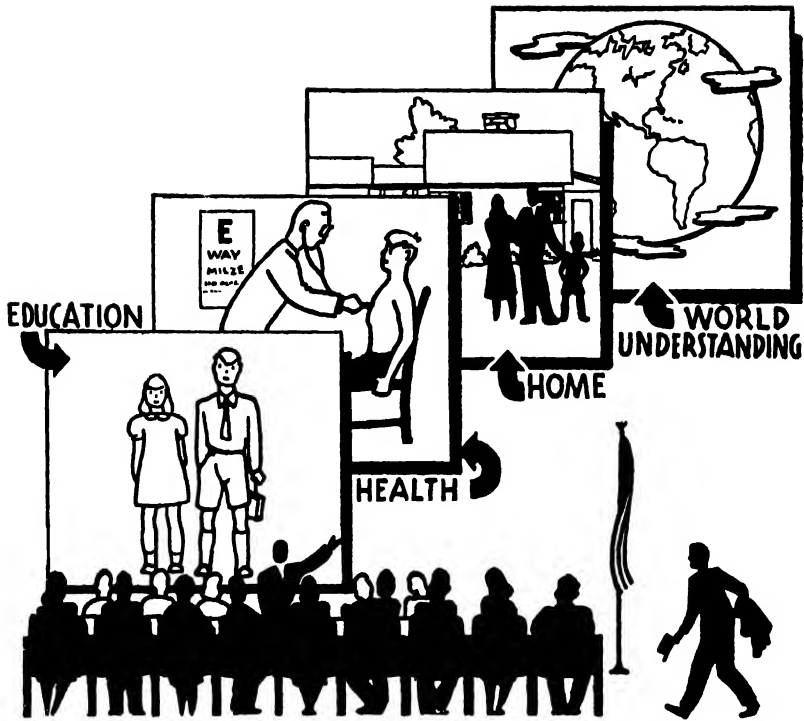
² Charles W. Eliot, *Educational Reform* (Century Co., 1898).

³ John Dewey, *The Child and the Curriculum* (University of Chicago Press, 1902); also John Dewey, *The School and Society* (same publisher, 1915).

⁴ M. V. O'Shea, *Education as Adjustment* (Longmans, Green and Co., 1908).

⁵ William C. Bagley, *The Educative Process* (Macmillan Co., 1905).

⁶ John M. Tyler, *Growth and Education* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1907).



THE PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION'S FOUR IMPORTANT OBJECTIVES

an educational organization that seeks to unite the forces of home, school, and community in behalf of childhood and youth. Its objects are:

1. To promote the welfare of children and youth in home, school, church, and community.
2. To raise the standards of home life.
3. To obtain adequate laws for the care and protection of children and youth.
4. To bring into closer relation the home and the school so that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of their children.
5. To develop between education and the general public such united efforts as will assure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, social, and spiritual education.

The Congress further points out that the following goals must be reached if every child is to have an opportunity to live a full life, satisfying to himself and useful to his community: (1) good homes, (2) sound health, (3) safety, (4) equalized educational opportunity, (5) conservation of human values and natural resources, (6) vocational adjustment, (7) constructive leisure-time activities, (8) civic responsibility, and (9) active spiritual faith.

It is the policy of the parent-teacher movement to stress each year certain aspects of the program designed to achieve progressively these objectives and goals. Naturally these must be adapted to each school-community situation. The secret of the parent-teacher movement is in the cooperative effort put forth locally in each community to understand and achieve these larger purposes.

PLANS OF ORGANIZATION

Parent-teacher associations are organized in all types of communities, rural and urban, to serve the needs of children and youth at various age levels. Since schools are organized on preschool, elementary, high school, and college levels, it is characteristic to organize an association around a particular school. In smaller communities, the association may be organized about the schools as a whole. The association may be said to be an organization of the parents of the children attending a school or schools, together with the teachers, supervisors, school board members, and interested patrons of the community. As we have pointed out, the strength of the parent-teacher association lies in the program and activities of the local association. Officers usually consist of a president, one or more vice-presidents, a secretary, and a treasurer. Committees may be appointed or elected for specific purposes as the occasion seems to require, the most significant being program, membership, hospitality, budget and finance, and study groups. Fees are nominal, possibly fifty cents per year. Four to eight meetings of the association are held annually.

In order to give local associations an opportunity to compare methods of work, receive suggestions on procedure, unite in common projects, and cooperate in fulfilling the objectives of the association, parent-teacher councils are organized within a city, county, or other convenient area. These councils should function as clearing houses for local associations. They are particularly useful in interpreting policies and programs, providing information, correlating activities, promoting understandings, cooperating with other community organizations, and promoting the interests of the National Congress.

TYPES OF LOCAL ORGANIZATION

SCHOOL ASSOCIATION

The typical parent-teacher association is organized around a particular school, especially if it is a large one. Here fathers and mothers come

together with teachers and administrators in studying the problems and needs of the school and the children, planning together for a better educational program and bringing about better understandings generally. Such an organization is ordinarily not too large for individual participation and can function well as a self-governing group under proper leadership. It can become more effective because the group is likely to be relatively homogeneous.

COMMUNITY ASSOCIATION

In many communities there is one parent-teacher association for all the schools, both elementary and secondary. Although it is advantageous to have an association in each school, this plan would appear to be preferable in smaller communities, where local problems and needs are not likely to be so diverse. Care should be taken that the major purposes of parent-teacher cooperation are not lost because the group is less likely to be homogeneous and because of any diversity of problems and needs. As the association increases in membership, group interest may decline. Strong enlightened leadership is essential to success.

GROUPINGS FOR SPECIFIC INTERESTS

Since the parent-teacher association movement is primarily interested in reaching parents everywhere, larger associations may be subdivided to reach (1) parents of elementary-school children, (2) parents of children still too young for school, (3) parents of high-school children, who again may be divided according to age or around a unit such as a home room, (4) parents of children in rural or consolidated schools, and (5) parents of young people in higher education or in other forms of private education. These groupings may be formed within an association or may be organized as individual units. In each case, better results are generally obtained where group interests are kept as homogeneous as possible.

HOME-ROOM MOTHERS

In order that the mothers and teachers, especially of small children, may be brought together, a group called the home-room mothers' organization has become popular in some schools. A chairman for the mothers is elected by the president of the parent-teacher association. Building chairmen are then appointed, who form an executive board. In turn, mothers are chosen as chairmen from each home room in cooperation with the teachers. Meetings are held during the afternoons. On the day appointed, mothers of each home room visit the school and observe the work in their respective rooms. After school the mothers serve tea. In this

way mothers and teachers enjoy a social hour. All the mothers are then brought together for two meetings during the year, at which time some phase of child welfare is discussed. The principal purpose, however, is to bring about a tolerant and sympathetic understanding toward the classroom teachers. Thus, problems arising from these afternoons spent with teachers in the classroom are discussed. Each is aided in meeting the other on a friendly basis looking toward the positive welfare of the child.

Some success has been achieved in forming an organization of parents around the group interests of a specific home room in high schools. The procedure is similar to that indicated in the preceding paragraph. The potential membership is smaller and the group much more homogeneous. Interest may be maintained through the successful prosecution of a project, which must be kept incidental to the larger educational purposes.

BAND MOTHERS' ASSOCIATIONS

Many schools have had success with the formation of parent groups built about a particular school need. The organization of a school band is a good example. Mothers (and fathers, too) are interested in the formation of the band, raising funds, helping to care for uniforms, and sponsoring the band under school leadership. However, when the organization has served its original purpose, it should be reorganized along lines of cooperative endeavor for the educational progress of all the boys and girls.

FATHERS' ASSOCIATIONS

It has been observed, that parent-teacher association audiences are usually composed of female members. Meetings where men are in the majority or where they constitute the whole audience are most unusual. Of interest is the Fathers' Association of the Frankford High School, Philadelphia, organized in 1912 by a group of thirteen men who wished to give the school certain assistance.⁷ It has developed into a strong organization attended by as many as two thousand fathers. Among its achievements may be listed:

1. A scholarship fund amounting to thousands of dollars available to deserving students going to college or university.
2. Financial assistance to deserving students while in high school.
3. Assistance in acquiring adequate athletic fields, physical education equipment, etc.
4. Assistance in acquiring a beautiful, modern school building in place of the inadequate one formerly used.
5. The fostering of the musical interests of the school by paying in-

⁷ "The Frankford High School Fathers' Association," *High School Teacher*, I (June 1925), pp. 188, 200.

structors, purchasing music and instruments, and underwriting similar music activities.

6. Assistance in providing funds for the school library.

7. The promotion of a series of ten monthly meetings each year with an average attendance of approximately a thousand at each meeting.

COOPERATIVE ASSOCIATIONS

In some smaller communities, there are groups which have been organized for other purposes—garden clubs, women's associations, mothers' clubs, or the community church. Since these are going organizations, enterprising leadership has utilized them in promoting the interests of the schools and in achieving, to a limited extent, the objectives of a parent-teacher organization. Wherever effective, these arrangements should be encouraged, especially if by further organization the success of the going organization might be impaired.

THE IMPORTANCE OF PLANNING

Consideration should always be given to the general plan of the association, both initially and through the years. Such a plan should be developed as it relates to the purposes of education, the objectives of the association, and the needs and problems of the schools. The plan is the real life of the association. It must precede any action, just as the drawing of plans for a house must precede the building of it. It requires thought to make a plan and leadership to execute it. Usually the plan is developed by the steering committee, composed of officers of the association, in cooperation with the superintendent of schools and selected principals or teachers. It is helpful if a slogan can be adopted for the year.

After a general plan has been adopted, the elements necessary to carry it out should be carefully considered. These include the organization and leadership activities, speakers, other personnel, pupils, if any are necessary for certain programs, publicity, cooperative relationships with other groups, financial support, and permission, where needed. Careful planning sufficiently far in advance is necessary for smooth performance and unhurried results as well as for coordination of the elements and activities. The initial planning committee might well include any individuals who may be directly or indirectly interested in working out any particular program.

ACTIVITIES

The activities of a parent-teacher association will vary greatly in accordance with the type of organization and the interests, attitudes, expe-

rience in parent-teacher work, and the degree of cooperation of its members with education in general and the schools in particular. The nature and effectiveness of the leadership is most important. Many of the activities are carried on through the several committees; others may constitute the program of the association as a whole. The *Parent-Teacher Manual*⁸ lists 33 possible activities, among them being character and spiritual education, health and the summer round-up, juvenile protection, mental hygiene, parent education, reading and library service, safety, school lunch, home and family life, and world citizenship.

One of the most comprehensive studies of activities of parent-teacher associations grouped them as follows:⁹

1. *Child welfare*—These include (a) *health* (clinics, free milk, first aid, lunches); (b) *recreation* (school picnics, hobbies, games, camps, and athletics); (c) *character building* (sponsoring boys' and girls' organizations such as Scouts, 4-H Clubs, and Junior Red Cross).

2. *Educational*—These include (a) activities concerning the *child* (furnishing school supplies, aiding libraries, films, beautifying school, character education, student loans and scholarships, graduation and other expenses, and kindergartens); (b) activities concerning *adults* (parent education, adult library services, community lectures, study groups, and adult dramatics).

3. *Community activities*—These include (a) *public relations*, including school visitations, open house, school demonstrations, and "know your school" programs; (b) *legislation*, including child welfare legislation, juvenile protection, aiding bond issues and school support; and (c) *community needs*, both educational and recreational, which include a wide variety of activities.

4. *Social activities*—These include *socialization* at all regular meetings, receptions for teachers, social affairs of pupils, picnics, dances, teas, and book reviews.

5. *Membership campaign activities*—Drives of various types are used to obtain members for the association. The favorite procedure is through the school (home rooms), using the children to take home cards and other information. Other methods used are house-to-house canvass, personal contacts, public displays of various sorts, and the mails. The membership committee is also charged with discovery of special interests and abilities of members and disseminating information about the association and its work.

FINANCIAL ACTIVITIES

In addition to the campaigns for dues, parent-teacher associations generally engage in raising funds for some project agreed upon as contributory to the school's educational program. Such projects include scholar-

⁸ *Parent-Teacher Manual*, 1949-50 (National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 1949).

⁹ Albert J. Nicely, *The Organization and Administration of Parent-Teacher Activities and Programs* (Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1941).

ships, student loans, recreational activities, caps and gowns, radio and television sets, motion-picture projector, stage equipment, and band equipment. Methods used successfully are card parties, musical and dramatic productions, promotion of school entertainments, personal contributions, exhibits of art work, hobby shows, bazaars, and clothing exchanges. Although money-raising activities may be encouraged to a limited extent, care should be taken that they do not take precedence over the larger objectives and primary activities of the association.

PARENT EDUCATION AND CHILD STUDY

Young fathers and mothers need assistance in the rearing of their children and in cooperating with the school in their education. The association recognizes this area as one of its greatest opportunities. An understanding of childhood is gained through a well-planned program of observation, study, and demonstration. Parent education, to be effective, must teach parents to be happy and serene, to meet problems successfully, and to gain insight into their own needs as well as the needs of their children. Programs should be planned with these purposes in view. Literature can be distributed, panel discussions held, demonstrations conducted, character and spiritual education emphasized, and study groups organized. These activities are one of the most potent means of developing cooperative endeavor.

PROGRAMS AND PROJECTS

As the objectives of the associations have been set forth and a general plan adopted to meet these objectives, consideration should be given to the individual programs of the year. Each program should be definitely related to the slogan adopted for the year and in accordance with the main objectives.

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers offers many suggestions annually for programs for various types of organizations. Naturally, these will need to be varied in accordance with the nature of the community and its schools. They should be well adapted to their interests and needs. Ideas gleaned from successful programs may well be taken into consideration by program committees in planning for a particular meeting, or for a year's work. Care should be taken, however, not to attempt to carry out a program in one association merely upon the recommendation of its success in another.

Meetings of the association are generally held in the evenings although many are held during the afternoon. It has been found helpful in many

school districts to consider the period from seven to eight o'clock as a period for teacher-parent conferences, during which time parents may consult with teachers in their own classrooms as to the child's progress and welfare, or inspect an exhibition of school work. At eight o'clock a bell may be sounded at which time parents and teachers may assemble for the program. The length of the meeting may be from one and one-half to two hours. Longer meetings are not usually desirable. Eight or nine meetings annually may be held although some associations prefer a smaller number. A social period following the regular meeting with light refreshments served suggests a fitting close to a pleasant and profitable evening.

The following is suggested as a typical agenda for a regular meeting of a parent-teacher association:

1. Opening—singing, prayer (optional)
2. Business session¹⁰—minutes, reports of committees, unfinished business, new business
3. Entertainment, such as music
4. Topic for the evening—address, demonstration, discussion
5. Plans for the next meeting
6. Social hour

Themes have been found helpful in arranging programs for the evening as well as for the year. These ought to be related to the objectives to be achieved, and built up progressively. The first meeting of the year should feature a reception for the teachers, the last possibly a school visitation and an exhibit. Observance of special occasions, such as founders' days, American Education Week, patriotic occasions, and religious festivals, can easily be woven into any program by some significant contribution. Emphasis should always be laid upon a satisfying school-community partnership. Programs can be presented by the following means: (1) speakers, (2) panel discussions, (3) the teachers, (4) administrators, (5) musical or other groups, (6) committees, (7) pupils, (8) speaker, with general discussion, (9) dramatization, (10) visual presentations, (11) demonstrations, and (12) combination of any of the above. All meetings should begin promptly, be conducted with proper parliamentary procedure and in good spirit, and close in good time with a feeling of satisfaction on the part of all present.

In practice, programs of parent-teacher associations usually range from unrelated talks given by speakers assembled on short notice to cooperative

¹⁰ Keep the business session short. If a worth-while project is to be discussed, it is better to plan the time for it in advance. Do not crowd the main part of the program at this point. See *Parent-Teachers Manual*.

programs involving participation on a high plane. Between these two extremes may be found all degrees of program planning or lack of it. The prevailing practice of getting from the community's professional or business roster a speaker "who will come" should be hastily discarded. It is doubtful whether a speaker who announces his topic as he rises to speak makes a worth-while contribution.

Many parent-teacher associations have developed interesting programs and projects and thereby aroused and retained community interest and cooperation. One parent-teacher association reports the following projects over a period of four years:

1. Hobby exhibits, sponsored by the association and participated in by townspeople representing 125 exhibits.
2. Civic night, at which were represented each of the community organizations—the fire company, board of health, town council, ministerial groups, etc. Each group was placed in a circle with school representatives, each briefly explaining his place in the community.
3. Leisure-activities night, in which all types of leisure activities were exemplified and evaluated in the interests of educational coordination.
4. Development of a scenario for a motion picture consisting of 1200 feet of film coordinating the educational activities of the school with the home and the community. This was shown on three evenings in order to accommodate the citizens of the borough who wished to see it.
5. Handbook for parents which served as a basis for school night, on which parents visited the classroom and observed the work of the schools. The handbook was developed by a committee of parents and teachers and aroused much attention as a school publication.
6. Home-activities night, in which fathers, mothers, and teachers participated with the boys and girls of junior high school age in several home-school activities, purposing to develop the spirit of comradeship and mutual understanding.
7. Mural art contest, in which over 180 junior high school pupils presented murals for display, many awards being widely distributed.

Many persons associated with the parent-teacher movement, especially in larger associations, believe that it is highly desirable to develop a smaller type of organization within the association where closer and more intimate contacts may be made between parent and teachers. Organizations of this character include mothers' clubs, young mothers' child-study clubs, home-room organizations, and fathers' associations as previously described. It is possible to develop study groups in certain areas of the community, or among children of certain age groups. Each larger organization should include provision for "face-to-face" contacts in smaller groups for better understanding.

GROWTH AND MEMBERSHIP

Organizations of parents and teachers have grown up rather spontaneously in various parts of the country in the interest of a better cooperative understanding of the child in relation to his home, the school, and the community. Many such associations had a state organization prior to the development of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. This body seemed to provide the common interest and purpose by means of which all such organizations could unite. The gross membership in the National Congress includes organizations of every type and description, all engaged, however, in some common cooperative endeavor in the interest of childhood.

Today every state, as well as the District of Columbia and the territories, has a state affiliation. The current national membership is nearly six million members, the largest single state memberships being California, Ohio, Illinois, and Texas, in the order named.

PUBLICATIONS

Numerous publications are available in regard to parent-teacher associations. The National Congress of Parents and Teachers promotes through its publications all phases of parent-teacher activity. The bookshelf of suggested P.T.A. materials includes more than twenty-five titles. The Congress publishes the *National Parent-Teacher*, the official organ, designed to promote the parent-teacher activities and the cause of childhood. State organizations usually publish some official organ either as a separate publication or in affiliation with some other state or local organ. Many local associations develop printed or mimeographed materials designed to promote the cause of the association and its activities. Numerous articles in the current literature give some indication of the scope and influence of this great movement.

APPRAISING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS

School officials and teachers generally approach the subject of parent-teacher associations with mixed praise and condemnation. Many teachers feel that the parent-teacher associations within their experience have not produced worth-while results. These views are usually based on so-called attempts of parents to "run the schools"; strife and prejudice; objections

to devoting extra time to the meetings; operation of a defense mechanism when the parent questions the workings of the school enterprise; and failure of many school officials, teachers, and parents to understand the proper functions of a parent-teacher association and the proper means of achieving these ends in the interest of childhood. Unless parent-teacher organizations are able to maintain leadership of the highest quality, fully informed of the aims and purposes of public education, they will do more harm than good.

Moffitt¹¹ indicates these mixed feelings when he writes:

Educators are agreed that the parent-teacher association may well be one of the greatest forces of the entire public-relations program. But many a school leader has found to his sorrow that the most friendly parent-teacher association will rebel if the intelligence of the members is insulted by undiluted propaganda thrown at them without thought or study.

The great potentialities available in properly managed parent-teacher associations renders them of incalculable value in a properly coordinated school-community relations program. They bring the parents and teachers together within the school environment, where there is opportunity to cement, under favorable conditions, a happy and necessary relationship. The parent-teacher association furnishes the best organized single agency around which a school-community relations program may be developed. The schools, to progress, must educate the community to a point where it may intelligently appraise the classroom work. The parent-teacher association furnishes the best single means for achieving this purpose.

In judging the effectiveness of a parent-teacher association program, the following criteria are suggested: (1) objectives, (2) membership and attendance, (3) program and activities, (4) leadership, (5) outcomes. Such questions as the following must be answered satisfactorily: Are the objectives in accord with those of the National Congress and the needs and problems of the local schools in particular? Is the membership representative, including all members of the community without regard to social or economic status, united in a common purpose to serve each child and all the children? Are the meetings interesting and satisfying, and do the members attend regularly? Is the leadership cooperative and effective? Is educational growth apparent on the part of parents, teachers, school officials, boards of education, and the parents and the community at large? Are the programs informative, inspiring, related, and helpful in furthering the cause of the boys and girls? Are the results in keeping with the educational results sought? And lastly, looking back over the years, is the association

¹¹ F. J. Moffitt, "Public Relations to the Rescue," *Nation's Schools*, 14 (Sept. 1934), pp. 31-32. (By permission of *Nation's Schools*.)

a vital community force? What has it done for the educational and social welfare of childhood or the community? To what extent is there common agreement among all (including the teachers) that it is indispensable? The answers to these questions will soon determine for all those associated with the parent-teacher association a positive or negative evaluation of effectiveness.

SUGGESTIONS FOR SUCCESSFUL PARENT-TEACHER COOPERATION

In summarizing the function of the parent-teacher association, it is pertinent to note the strategic position held by this organization as a school-community relations agency. None equals it in importance and potential significance. Upon whatever levels of participation the school may be organized, the association may be found useful in achieving the ends sought. In order to make it more functional, some observations may be offered: that the organization in the local association be tied up closely with the National Congress; that the association be self-supporting, adequately led in harmony and good fellowship, striving to achieve the educational objectives sought; that the leadership be inspired though not necessarily controlled within the school; that the status of the association be recognized and clarified by the responsible school authorities; that each meeting be kept well within two hours (preferably one and one half hours) and of vital interest to all; that the association undertake worthwhile projects of a minor nature designed primarily to create interest and solidarity and, secondly, to assist the school materially; that the membership be representative of all social levels of the community, all grade and age levels of children, and all political, economic, and social groups; that the association refrain from making decisions highly professional or within the province of the board, although suggestions are always quite desirable; that every meeting serve as a means of presenting information and developing mutual interaction; that all teachers and supervisory officers be present at meetings, conferring with parents and aiding in the objectives of the association; that programs be primarily by and for adults; that competitive means of attracting members be used only as a last resort. These are the goals towards which to strive, in the hope that each may be attained.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. How can you account for the phenomenal growth of the parent-teacher movement?
2. Do you agree with the statement that the parent-teacher association is unequaled by any other single agency as a school-community relations agency?
3. What is the attitude in your community toward a parent-teacher association? If it is negative, try to account for it.
4. Make a survey of the nature and extent of organized parent-teacher cooperation in your community.
5. If a parent-teacher association is in operation, ascertain something of its origin, earlier activities, and objectives.
6. Make a list of the possible objectives of any association with which you may be familiar. Compare these with the suggestions indicated in the chapter.
7. Compare the possible outcomes of parent-teacher associations when organized in an elementary school, junior high school, senior high school. What are the advantages and disadvantages of one association for several schools of a community, as compared with associations centering in each building?
8. Why, if it is true, are most parent-teacher associations overfeminized? How can more men be attracted to membership?
9. What other suggestions may be offered for an evaluation of the results of a parent-teacher association? Test those presented in the chapter.
10. Why does the progressive movement in education emphasize greater cooperation with the home? Along what lines?

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PART FIVE

**ORGANIZATION
AND ADMINISTRATION**



CHAPTER 1.8

The Community Survey

PROFESSOR JAMES WINSLOW, Chairman of the Division of School Studies at the University, called together his survey committee in the board room of the Allison City Schools. The committee had been carefully selected. It was composed not only of staff members from the University, specialists in their field, but also of several citizens of Allison City suggested by Superintendent Evans. Among them were Mr. Hayes, president of the parent-teacher association, and Mary Brown.

"Ladies and gentlemen," said Professor Winslow, "we are engaged in an important undertaking in Allison City. We are authorized to make a thorough examination of the schools as well as the community. We are assured that the people want a complete report, accompanied by a proposed modern educational program with the best features of a community school. Above all, they want the truth. We are also assured of complete cooperation from the school board, the administration, the teachers, and the parent-teacher association. Several community organizations have endorsed our study."

The survey staff then proceeded to organize itself. The first committee was appointed to study the community, the people, their ethnic and social backgrounds, the economic life, institutions, local government, trade unions, health and safety, and the community's historic past. Other committees were to study the educational program, organization and administration of the schools, the school personnel, the school buildings, and financial support and management.

Boys and girls were easily attracted to Professor Winslow, partly because of his pleasing manner, but mostly because he had a way of making them feel their importance and responsibility. When he appeared before the high-school assembly and explained in simple language what the survey was trying to do, he received an enthusiastic reception, especially when he outlined some of the things that a good school should be. He said that doing these things would require their help. They would be asked to get some information from their parents and other citizens. In addition, they would have to work hard to get community support for a modern educational program, especially if a bond issue was required.

The editor of the *Allison City Chronicle* had never been enthusiastic about the local schools until after Superintendent Evans' Rotary speech. Professor Winslow invited him to one of the survey staff meetings and took care to provide him with material for publication. The community anxiously awaited the report. Mary Brown's dream of a community school seemed to be coming true.



The need for thorough understanding of the community served by the schools has been emphasized throughout this text, but no procedure has been suggested thus far for achieving it. School personnel are often as destitute of knowledge of the local pattern, the homes, the occupations, the historic past, and the cultural and social life of the community as many of the citizens are unenlightened concerning the schools. Understanding a community should be considered as a long-range process, requiring constant accumulation of information, properly interpreted by trained personnel in the light of scientific procedures.

The educational survey is not new to the field of education. As we noted in Chapter 12, it is one of the most distinctive and energizing educational movements in its effects on education in general and on the public schools in particular. It seeks through approved techniques to analyze and evaluate the school, its organization and administration, its personnel, its policies, its work, and its support. The survey should in-

clude a careful analysis of the educational needs of the community. It should present to school officials as well as the citizens of the community an unbiased evaluation of the work of the schools. The survey is, or should be, scientific, impartial, thorough, and above all, constructive. Out of the recommendations a constructive educational program can be developed.

It is the purpose of this chapter to consider the community survey as a companion procedure to the educational survey, especially in terms of its value as the basis of a scientific program of school-community relations. We shall consider (1) the nature of the movement, (2) the information needed about the community, (3) types of community surveys, (4) organization of the community survey, (5) procedures, and (6) utilization of the information in developing school-community relations programs.

NATURE OF THE MOVEMENT

The social-survey idea is very old. For centuries, perhaps, men have assembled facts about poverty, misery, privation, and other social problems. It was not, however, until its scientific basis became well established that the social-survey movement gained wide acceptance.¹ Since 1914, social surveys have become patterns for the study of social and economic conditions, especially in our larger cities.

The scientific social survey seeks to isolate specific phases of social phenomena and to study them in the light of those causal factors which influence human behavior and social institutions. Social living is complex and must be diagnosed in order to be understood and improved. A study of a community should reveal not only the dynamic and constructive factors and relationships tending toward the community's betterment but more particularly its disorganizing elements, such as poverty, unemployment, broken homes, vice, crime, as well as unusual human and social behavior in any form. When all these facts are put together, they reveal the total social situation.

The social survey should utilize scientific methods in the collection, classification, and interpretation of the data collected. Procedures should be adequate and well planned, personnel should be selected carefully and well trained, and the report truthful, constructive, and timely. In this text we are chiefly concerned with the value of a social survey to educational planning and to the establishment of cooperative relationships in building a sound school-community relations program.

¹ For an excellent discussion of the survey movement, consult Pauline V. Young, *Scientific Social Surveys and Research* (Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1946), Chap. 1.

INFORMATION NEEDED ABOUT THE COMMUNITY

In building a sound educational program, the first essential is to fit such a program to the needs, interests and problems of those who would profit most by it. These can best be understood in their social settings, and it is for this reason that a social analysis of the community must be made. For illustration, a sound curriculum must fit, in part, the future occupational needs of youth as they prepare to make their own living and eventually support a home and family; a sound school building program is defensible only after a study of the needs of the community and its ability to support such a program.

In educational planning, the following information should be made available:

1. *The people*—Who are the people who live within the area served by the schools? What are their number, seasonal changes in population growth, mobility, age levels, birth rate, death rate? Who are the school children and where do they attend school? It is advisable to have a spot map locating the homes of all the children.

2. *Ethnic and cultural composition*—The second requirement is to understand the ethnic distribution and origin of the people, citizenship status, language and educational levels. The general cultural levels should be studied according to distribution by geographic areas or other groupings, since this factor is often of great importance in an educational program.

3. *Home and family life*—Here one should have information concerning family living, its permanence, divorce, broken homes, attitudes toward marriage and children, housing conditions, types of homes, home ownership, family conflicts, disorganizing influences on home and family life, effects of economic conditions on family living, and effectiveness of social-welfare agencies in dealing with problems. The leisure activities of the people should be studied, especially as they relate to home and family living.

4. *Economic life*—A study of the community should reveal how the people make their living, types of occupations, wages and economic standards in relation to standards of living, unemployment, types of industries, employer-employee relations, influence of such economic organizations as chambers of commerce and unions as well as their key leaders and their attitudes toward public education. What is the attitude of banks and industrial institutions toward good schools and a forward-looking program? The natural resources and their relation to human resources should be studied.

5. *Moral and religious influence*—This is one of the best indexes to what may be described as the *tone* of a community. Some information should be collected concerning the churches and other religious organizations, such as the Y.M.C.A. Are these institutions active in the social and educational life of the community? Information should be collected concerning those institutions which seek to improve the moral welfare of youth,

such as the juvenile courts, fraternities, scouts, 4-H Clubs, and similar organizations. Along with this information one should have records of all disorganizing community forces, such as taverns, roadhouses, rackets, gangs, commercialized amusements, as well as a record of individuals associated with such undertakings.

6. *The local government*—Although the administration of a public school does not come within the authority of the local city, borough, or county government, it is well if full and complete understanding and mutual support characterize their relationship, especially along those lines where the interests of boys and girls are concerned. Politics is associated with government, and the public schools should prepare youth to take an active and constructive part in the affairs of local government. To this end full information should be available concerning the organization of local government, its officers, the party in power, its policies and problems, and especially the attitudes of its leaders toward the school and youth. The relations of state and national government as they affect the community should be studied, especially as they serve education.

7. *Community health and safety*—Much should be known concerning the health status of the community, the board of health and its activities, the hospitals, clinics, doctors, and nurses. Of especial interest is the extent to which these facilities serve children and youth. Safety hazards, such as traffic, highways, and industrial conditions, should be studied.

8. *The community's past*—It is wise to have a file of information on the history of the community, origins of the institutions and industries, traditions, customs and mores, old families, leading citizens and their attitudes, especially toward education, historical events that may have some influences, with a map of the community showing growth and development. It may be advisable to know something of neighboring communities and their industries and leaders, if in any way they influence local community living, especially the schools.

9. *Cultural and social conflicts*—Many conflicts arise out of our cultural and social living. Men fall within certain social, ethnic, religious, political, and economic classifications. Often these groups feud within themselves or with one another, seriously impeding progress. Leaders emerge with attitudes often determined by the cause they represent. The origins of such conflicts may be deep in the past. Some visible manifestation, such as a "spite fence" or an abandoned industry, may become a symbol long after the occasion is forgotten. School people new to a community sometimes innocently get into grievous difficulties because they "didn't know." Perhaps some record might warn a newcomer; or perhaps it is better to assist with the interment.

TYPES OF COMMUNITY SURVEYS

Community surveys have been classified by Olsen² into five types, according to the community phenomena which they examine:

² Edward G. Olsen, *School and Community*, p. 172.

1. *Community structure*, according to local, regional, national, and international areas, and according to material, institutional, and psychological levels.

2. *Community setting*, according to its geography and its population.

3. *Community processes*, which include utilizing the environment, appreciating the past, adjusting to people, exchanging ideas, making a living, sharing in citizenship, maintaining health and safety, improving family life, obtaining an education, meeting religious needs, enjoying beauty, and engaging in recreation.

4. *Community time period*—its historic past, contemporary living, and future outlook.

5. *Community agencies*, governmental, commercial, and private non-commercial.

A complete study of all these factors would produce an extensive overview of a community and its processes which relate to social living. As we have indicated previously, one might select for extensive study one or more areas most likely to reveal the information needed for the solution of the problem under consideration. One should be guided by the purpose to be attained and the most advantageous way to attain it.

In approaching the study of a community, then, the educational leader should determine just what information he wants concerning the community. If there is a specific problem under consideration, such as a school building project, occupational needs, adult education, or recreational facilities for youth, the plan should be developed which will provide the facts essential to its solution. If, however, a complete community survey seems desirable in order to build a sound school-community relations program, reconstruct the educational program, or provide essential information for the records, the project should be approached as a comprehensive community survey.

ORGANIZATION FOR THE SURVEY

Before proceeding to organization, some authority should be established. If the survey is to be organized under the leadership of the school, the board of education should approve the project. If it is to be vested somewhere in the community, as in a community council, prior approval should be obtained and the project clearly outlined and understood. The approving body should also approve the leadership and the scope of the undertaking and provide for its cost, including publication.

The organization of the survey should be the responsibility of the educational leader designated—in most instances the superintendent of schools. He should select the personnel, prepare them for their tasks and

determine procedures, necessary routines, manner of collecting, compiling, and recording data, and the manner of their interpretation. If it is decided to employ a professional group to proceed with the survey, similar controls should be established and thoroughly understood.

PROCEDURES

PERSONNEL

At the outset it should be pointed out that, once the objectives are clearly formulated and understood, the data collected and procedures to be followed should be focused on the purposes of the project and the solution of the problems. The personnel selected should be thoroughly prepared for their tasks, emotionally stable, friendly, accurate, and businesslike. They must carefully avoid personal indiscretions, possible misrepresentations, and the creation of unpleasant experiences. Courtesy should prevail at all times. Careful preparation should be made for the manner of recording data and compiling them for the records.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION

Much time can be saved by knowing exactly what information to get and where to get it. Occasionally, pertinent information may not be available. Opposition may come from unexpected quarters. In such cases, one must be resourceful in locating other sources of information. Lay advisors could be of much assistance in helping to understand the community and in suggesting procedures. Perhaps another can succeed where the one assigned has failed.

The surveyor should be familiar with the many documentary sources available both within and outside the community which may throw light on the problem under consideration. These include newspaper files; local libraries and museums; local histories; reports of local welfare agencies, banks, businesses, and the like; local and state governmental reports, licenses, permits, tax records; local and state publications; national records and publications, such as census records and business statistics; and school records. The surveyor should search for similar previous surveys and reports. Care should be taken, however, to verify all data and examine all findings and recommendations.

The human factor is essential in community surveying. People may be hesitant and suspicious. One tends to oppose that which he does not understand. If one reporter cannot obtain the desired information, perhaps another can, unless the first has made further efforts fruitless by his

ineptitude. One must be careful to maintain confidences and respect privacy. Suspicion of one's motives or the creation or continuance of community conflicts may be destructive of the best efforts of all concerned. On the other hand, most people tend to respond to courtesy in a sincere and constructive undertaking, especially if they realize that they or their children will ultimately benefit.

Specific techniques should be developed which will assist in obtaining the desired information. These should be adapted to the specific phase of the study and might include spot maps, street diagrams, questionnaires, opinionnaires, interviews, photographs, charts, diagrams, sketches, graphs, tables, statistics, population studies, prediction techniques, special reports, community meetings, pupils as agents, demonstrations, and many others. The point is to know what to use and how and when to use it for best results.

WHO SHOULD MAKE THE SURVEY?

Earlier surveys were usually conducted by groups under trained leadership brought in from outside the school and community. As techniques became better known and local leadership became available, community surveys have increasingly been made by personnel selected from within the community, either with or without local direction.

With increasing emphasis in colleges and universities on community study and the techniques for its accomplishment, many studies of the community are now being made by principals, teachers, and others, using teachers, pupils, and parents for assistance. Many of these studies pertain to such specific problems as guidance and curriculum, housing, recreation, community resources, consumer statistics, and business outlook.³

UTILIZING INFORMATION IN DEVELOPING SCHOOL- COMMUNITY RELATIONS PROGRAMS

COMPILATION OF DATA

After the data have been collected, they should be compiled in form suitable for presentation and interpretation. Some plan for reporting must be prearranged. Each committee's report should be reviewed by its members and submitted to the director and the general committee for review and adoption. It is important to point out that unity and a common purpose should permeate the complete report, each part being consistent with the others. Points of disagreement should be carefully considered by the

³ For an excellent bibliography of these projects see *ibid.*, pp. 195-197.

whole committee and agreement reached by majority rule. The director should be careful never to decide a point of issue or make a final decision alone by virtue of his position or his influence. Such a procedure destroys at once the spirit of any cooperative undertaking.

THE REPORT

After all committees have reported and the reports have been adopted, editing of the entire report should be undertaken to iron out inconsistencies, duplications, unnecessary material, or illogical conclusions, and to correct errors of fact or form. The material should be carefully arranged, readable, logical, and to the point. It should be remembered that the survey set out to solve a problem or fulfill some objective. Now the complete report must be reviewed in the light of that outcome. The report should then be submitted to the sponsoring body for acceptance and eventually presented to the public for its information and subsequent action.

Various methods might be suggested for publicizing the completed report. Selection might be made from the following.

1. Public meetings to which interested persons are especially invited, with material represented orally and perhaps visually.
2. Radio broadcasts in whole or in sequence.
3. News stories for local newspapers.
4. Printed or mimeographed materials with selected distribution.
5. Addresses before the community's business, professional, and social groups.
6. The parent-teacher association, if active, with support of the survey recommendations organized around its interests.
7. Exhibits and demonstrations.
8. Any reporting means *peculiar to the community* which can be utilized effectively.

RELATING THE SURVEY TO THE SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS PROGRAM

In this discussion, we are assuming that the purpose of the community survey bears some definite relationship to the development of a school-community relations program. Many data are now available. What practical use can be made of them? Several outcomes are immediately evident.

1. The community and its people are understood better than before. The leaders are known. The institutions have been studied. Much is known of the natural as well as human resources. The attitudes of the people toward education are understood and recorded. Moreover, there is a better understanding of how people live together.

2. The problems of the community have now been identified. These will include education. The people will have learned much about educa-

tion, and the school much about the problems of the boys and girls in the community.

3. The report should point the way to a more constructive mode of community living in which education must play an increasingly important part. Through this experience, citizens should learn how to get along with one another.

4. The community survey should stimulate a program of action. What are we going to do about these things? Community interest and cooperation having been captured, how can they be retained and nurtured?

The only possible constructive answers to the questions in paragraph 4 are (1) the development of a sound policy of school-community relations which will fit the school community, (2) the formation of an appropriate organization, and (3) the construction of a program which will bring about more desirable school-community morale and a better educational program for the boys and girls.

COORDINATING THE RESULTS OF THE EDUCATIONAL SURVEY WITH THE COMMUNITY SURVEY

The school survey as a means of appraising the educational program of the public schools has been discussed in Chapter 12. Surveys of this nature may be comprehensive in character, appraising the school in its entirety, or they may study and appraise one or more specific phases, such as the school finances, the school plant, or the school program. A comprehensive school survey usually includes a section on the community and an evaluation of the school-community relations now functioning. We have already called attention to points of contact with the public which grow out of school surveys in which the public is informed of the results and of the needs of the schools as recommended by the surveyors.

In the development of a program of school-community relations, the results of both types of surveys will have much to offer, since they approach the problem from different points of view. It is important that these two points of view be maintained as each survey progresses, in order that both approaches be harmonized in the resulting program. The community survey will reveal the philosophy of the community in regard to education and the public school and thereby assist in establishing the appropriate policy. The school survey should reveal the same for the school board and administrative leadership, and determine whether a forward-looking program can be established and whether the educational leadership is competent to direct it. Moreover, the director of school-community relations can now proceed in the light of known facts concerning both the schools and the community, its personalities, institutions, and problems.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Compare the development of the social-survey movement with the school-survey movement. What points have both in common?
2. Analyze a community survey. What data may be said to be scientifically determined? What data rest on opinion?
3. Analyze the section entitled "Information Needed about the Community" from the standpoint of the development of a school-community relations program. What suggestions can you offer for additional information?
4. What specific qualifications, including preparation, should be required of a director of a community survey? By the assistants?
5. Appraise the increasing trend to use pupils in community surveys. What are some of the dangers?
6. Account for the fact that many community surveys fail to bring about a program of action.

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CHAPTER 19

Policy Making

THE ALLISON CITY SCHOOL BOARD was meeting in regular session, with Dr. Morrison, the president, in the chair. Much had happened in Allison City during the three months since the board had authorized the superintendent to study and report on a plan for school-community relations. This report had been deliberately delayed, but Superintendent Evans felt that the time had now arrived to present his report and secure board adoption of at least a policy. He had talked this matter over with Mrs. Reynolds, the woman member of the board, who heartily agreed.

The board listened to the superintendent's report with much interest. He described the activities of the parent-teacher association, his pamphlets, his Rotary speech, the changed attitude of the editor of the *Allison City Chronicle*, and now the school survey. He proposed that the school board adopt a resolution establishing a policy on school-community relations in accordance with the principles he proposed and that he be authorized to present the details of a plan to be presented at the next meeting of the

board. There was little discussion. On Mrs. Reynolds' motion, the resolution was unanimously adopted.



In setting up a program of school-community relations, some plan of action is necessary. The approach to policy making and the plan of action will naturally coincide with the attitudes and beliefs held by the school-community and its educational leadership. At the same time, policy making should be progressive in nature, initially adapted to a given community situation but advancing to higher levels with the education of the people and their experience in working together. Then, too, one must be responsive to the forces of reaction and of inaction, and to difficult situations which seemingly are beyond control. It is important that each community be studied carefully in order to set up the proper *initial* policy. Once agreed upon, it should form the basis for program development.

NATURE OF A POLICY

An educational policy is a definite plan of action previously agreed upon either by formal action or by common consent. It may have its basis in a law or regulation or in a decision on the part of a board or administration to proceed with a movement or a program. It may be the result of an informal decision or agreement by one in authority, with or without consensus of judgment.

PHILOSOPHICAL BASIS

"As a man thinketh in his heart, so is he." This truth has particular application to the relationship between one's philosophy of school-community relations and the policy one promulgates. Hence it is important that the philosophy be sound and defensible not only as it relates to the educational leadership but also as it applies to the community. If the public school is to become the leavening institution which it should be in community living, it is important that the basis of the philosophy and its corresponding policy begin "where the people are" and proceed to higher levels as rapidly as possible. Knowing the community thoroughly is essential to the task of building a sound policy.

In Chapter 6, four philosophical approaches were described which can form the basis for the development of policy. These are: (1) indifference to the home and the community; (2) selling the schools (pub-

licity); (3) educational interpretation; and (4) cooperative endeavor in the interests of complete child welfare. These should be reviewed.

HAGMAN'S SEVEN CONCEPTS

The significance of the school administrator's point of view in influencing policy making and program development in school-community relations has been interestingly stated by Hagman, who points out seven concepts of school-public relations which may be found in practice.¹ These appellations, in part satirically presented, are: (1) The "Little Nell" concept, in which the slogan is "Save our schools"; (2) the "ounce of prevention" concept, doing something about education before something worse happens; (3) the "fire wagon" concept, being all ready for an emergency and probably asleep when the emergency happens; (4) The "show window" concept, characterized as always putting the best foot forward; (5) The "golden stairs" concept, based on ideals impossible of attainment, possibly not meant for attainment; (6) The "hands across the table" concept, a two-way procedure, good as far as it goes but lacking in full understanding and cooperation; and (7) The "social leadership" concept, the only possible ultimate approach, in which educational leadership of a high type works together with the people of a community in developing solutions to its educational and social problems.

ELEMENTS OF A POLICY

The following elements should characterize the formation of each policy:

1. *Statement of purpose*—This includes the nature of the activity, its legal limits, if any, the objectives which it has helped to accomplish and the relationship which this activity may have with other school activities or functions. It might be preceded with a statement of beliefs and convictions held concerning education, the public schools, and this activity. Thinking through the policy in this manner will be one of the best means of clarifying it.

2. *Approaches to achievement*—The scope of the activity to be developed must be reasonably determined, and the means of achieving the hoped-for goals clearly kept in mind. It is possible that all of these may not be clear at the outset; hence freedom of action might be agreed upon. Possible avenues should be thought through with some means of testing their value and practicability.

¹ Harlan L. Hagman, "Seven Concepts of School-Public Relations," *Nation's Schools*, 40, No. 5 (Nov. 1947), pp. 23-25

3. *Authority and personnel*—Sound policy making always reposes somewhere authority as well as responsibility for its administration. Persons may be named or methods set up whereby personnel can be selected. Care should always be taken that personal interests and desires in selection do not undermine the success of a sound policy even before its application. Policies should be openly arrived at, fully known to all, adequately supported, and quickly changed if for any reason they prove ineffective.

In the ensuing sections, four policies, which can be readily identified in practice, will be examined and appraised. Each of these policies is the direct outgrowth of a philosophy or concept of school-community relations which has been discussed in Chapter 6 and to which the reader is referred. The characteristics of each should be carefully reviewed so that a full understanding of its nature will be secured.

POLICY OF LAISSEZ-FAIRE

The state of mind in which there is a partial or complete indifference to, or disregard of, the place of the home and the community in any educational endeavor associated with public education naturally leads to a policy of laissez-faire. Whatever contacts are made with the home and community are those required by law or the exigencies of the situation. There is little or no attempt to inform the public concerning the purposes and problems of the school, much less to present those problems interpretatively, unless it becomes necessary to do so. A lack of public interest is explained away in a manner disparaging to the community and quite often to the schools themselves. Contacts with the home are largely those of a disciplinary nature and, as a result, are usually distressing.

There is no form of community group participation with the schools. Parent-teacher associations are opposed, or at most mildly countenanced. However, commencement and similar infrequent traditional activities are ceremonial affairs addressed by well-paid orators. There is no program of school-community relations—unless it consists of the studious efforts of the administration to have as little to do with the public as possible under the circumstances.

A policy of laissez-faire has little to commend it, even in communities where such has been the practice for years, or in communities of foreign-born or low-intelligence-level groups. There is something definitely wrong with the educational leadership, as well as the school board, which permits it. Where such a policy in any form has been practiced, it is suggested that any good points in it be isolated and made the basis for a policy of a higher order and level.

POLICY OF SALESMANSHIP

Business pointed the way to a new policy which we will term the policy of salesmanship, since it has been built on a philosophy of *selling the schools*. Here the primary purpose has been to sell the schools or their services to the citizens of the community for a consideration, that consideration apparently being the citizen's vote, his financial or moral support, or his acquiescence.

The policy of salesmanship involves the methods of advertising. The facts necessary to effect the sale are carefully selected. Facts thus selected are usually favorable to education, leading to the hope of general satisfaction, whereas unfavorable facts are withheld or suppressed. The dangers of propaganda are impending, if not present. The policy of salesmanship reaches its highest development during school campaigns involving bond issues, school buildings and sites, or other similar problems. Occasionally, a professional "salesman" is sought out, often on a percentage basis, to achieve the ends sought. Usually such campaigns are periodic in nature—that is, developed for the particular purpose in mind. Public interest, although aroused for the moment, usually subsides when the occasion passes. Out of many of these campaigns, however, there may grow a movement for a continuous program of school publicity, which, while retaining many of the features of the periodic campaign, will differ in that its methods will be refined and the intelligent interest of the community sustained.

In any form of a policy of salesmanship, the nature of the personal contacts of the community with the school is somewhat improved over that in a policy of *laissez-faire*. In public meetings held in the schools for specific purposes, citizens come to know the members of the board, the administrative officers, and the teachers. Quite often parent-teacher associations have grown out of these public gatherings of interested citizens. Interest may have been aroused through solicitation of their vote, and school information may have been disseminated through leaflets, circulars, public addresses, and possibly the radio. Unfortunately, on these periodic occasions, citizens have not always been sure that *full* information has been disseminated, that what they voted for was the wisest thing in the end, that when the emotional excitement subsided the real situation might not appear. Would it not be a good thing to obtain more adequate information often and regularly? Just what school information is available in other communities? These questions are raised by the interested citizens of the community. When the mass of citizens may have lapsed into indifference toward education, some may still wish for a better school policy. By and large, they are the parents of the boys and girls.

POLICY OF EDUCATIONAL INTERPRETATION

Educational interpretation as an approach to school-community relations seems the logical outgrowth of the policy of salesmanship. Certain dissatisfactions require a new policy better adapted to rapidly changing social and economic conditions, as well as an enormously increased interest in public education. As a result, a policy of educational interpretation has been developed which may be characterized by two aspects: (1) public-school information interpretatively presented, and (2) simple participation by the home and the community actively encouraged by the school.

Public-school information interpretatively presented implies the recognition of a number of fundamental concepts of public education: that education is a great social process and is nation-wide in its scope and influence; that the educational process is an integral part of social living in each community; that the public school has been organized to safeguard social values and traditions; that education is broader than the public school; that it reaches out directly or indirectly to children of ages other than those attending public school; that the public school is, and should be, a center of the educational, social, intellectual, and spiritual life of the community; and that to carry out a program of public education in every community, a measure of cooperation with the home and community agencies and institutions is desirable, if not essential.

PERSONAL CONTACTS

Some forms of simple participation on the part of the people of a community are necessary in order that these objectives may be achieved. People must be reached; hence social contacts are necessary. Four types of contacts are discernible: (1) visits of parents and citizens to the school for the purpose of understanding the school in operation; (2) contacts with the home—teacher visitation, health service, and school census taken by principal or teachers; (3) contacts with the community through addresses and attendance at service clubs, churches, and social organizations; (4) contacts by groups definitely organized in relation to the school—parent-teacher associations, mothers' associations, or groups which meet informally about school affairs in connection with other organizations.

In all of these contacts, it should be noted that community participation is generally passive rather than active. The initiative resides within the school. It is true that the school often encourages the community to provide, by means of additional support, those activities and needs that

are not otherwise provided, such as additional playground or cafeteria equipment, a motion-picture machine, or books for the library. In fact, many schools center forms of simple participation around provision for the additional needs of the school, slight enrichments of the curriculum, and such special services as pennants, medals, rewards, and transportation, and health facilities. In some schools such service may extend to clerical work, such as the preparation of a newsletter to parents. In all these forms of participation, the interest of the parent as a participant begins when the child enters the elementary school, is maintained through the elementary schools, begins to decline gradually thereafter, and for the most part, has disappeared entirely in the last years of the senior high school, until at commencement time it is revived in a final glow, soon to go out forever.

ESSENTIAL CRITERIA

In setting up a policy of educational interpretation, the following criteria are proposed:

1. The policy should recognize the principle of responsibility on the part of the public schools for initiation and direction, and of the home and community to expect that the schools will fulfill this responsibility.
2. The policy should be carefully planned, looking forward to the future needs of the school in relation to the home and the community.
3. The policy should be interesting and inclusive, making use of audio-visual procedures, all presented with a purpose in mind and with observation and evaluation of the results.
4. The policy should be continuous—that is, planned for and expected regularly.
5. The policy should be adapted to community levels of understanding and intelligence.
6. The policy should be truthful and honest, without bias or the withholding of essential information.
7. The policy should be satisfying to those who receive it, both in quality and in the degree to which it fulfills proposed objectives.
8. Provision should be made for the interests and expectations of different groups.
9. Provision should be made for its direction within the school, with the roles of principals, teachers, pupils, and parents definitely ascertained.
10. Provision should be made for adequate forms of simple participation of parents and interested community groups. This participation should be provided in relation to levels of interests, intelligence, needs, and capacity of citizens to participate. The number and nature of participating groups will depend upon attitudes and conditions within the community.
11. Provision should be made for means of adequate evaluation of the policy in action, and desirable changes should be made in the light of results.

12. Since a policy of educational interpretation is not completely satisfying, provision should be made for its development into the next and highest level.

APPRAISAL

For those communities which are not yet ready to undertake a higher level of school-community relations, the policy of educational interpretation has much to commend it. Its appraisal should be based on the satisfaction of the twelve criteria mentioned above. As both the school and the community become ready to proceed to the highest policy level, it should be gradually abandoned. Such a transition requires the complete re-education of the school personnel to a philosophy of cooperative endeavor in the interests of complete child welfare, as well as that of the parents of the children and the people of the community. This transition will be slow and must be undertaken with preparation and caution.

POLICY OF MUTUAL INTERACTION

Education as a complex social process places many obligations on individuals, agencies, and institutions other than those associated with the public schools. The very magnitude of this educational task demands a policy of *mutual interaction*. Essential to the formulation of this policy is the recognition that learning takes place in many environmental situations within the home and the community as well as the school. In the home and community may be found learning situations which are positive in educational effect. Other conditions may be actually undermining the work of the school itself and not in the best interests of childhood and youth. It is a joint community responsibility to uproot these conditions and replace them with a wholesome environment. The public school, as traditionally organized, does not now provide adequately for the child's varied nature at different age or mental levels, although schools may vary widely in this particular. Furthermore, the public school should recognize that many wholesome educational situations are now being provided by the home and the community through leisure-time activities, travel, libraries, activities of welfare organizations and associations, the newspaper, the motion picture, the radio, and in a host of other ways. Such wholesome opportunities should be made available to all, wherever possible. An adequate policy of mutual interaction should seek to harmonize all desirable aspects of the home and community environment. It should plan for the best *interests of the whole child and of all the children*.

ESSENTIAL CRITERIA

The formulation of a policy of mutual interaction requires a somewhat different approach from that of the policies previously discussed. This is evident as one reviews the philosophy upon which it is posed. The complexity of the educational processes, the structure of the community, the variety of interests represented in the community, and the formulation of a program designed to meet the needs of boys and girls require a cooperative undertaking of no mean significance. The following criteria are suggested as essential in its formulation:

1. *Relation of education to the democratic processes.* Adequate recognition should be given to the relation of education to the democratic processes, its varied and changing nature, and the influencing environmental situations in home, school, and community contributing to the total educational pattern.

2. *Location and acceptance of responsibility.* Education as a many-sided process places certain responsibilities upon all who may be associated in any way with those to be educated. Subject to mandated authority, location and acceptance of this responsibility is a primary consideration. The leadership, however, is definitely professional.

3. *The cooperative principle.* The nature of the association of those concerned in the total educational process should be one of cooperative endeavor. To this end the bases of cooperation should be studied and adapted to each local situation.

4. *Leadership and followership.* Leadership in cooperative undertakings should definitely be professional, properly prepared, and thoroughly imbued with underlying philosophy. It usually is, but may not necessarily be, located within the school. Followership is just as important. The place and function of all cooperative groups must be carefully studied and determined.

5. *Active and passive participation.* The nature and form of the participation of individuals and groups will be both active and passive. These should likewise be determined by means of (a) decisions of the steering committee, (b) needs, (c) areas of service, (d) levels of cooperative attainment, and (e) limitations of time, support, and authority.

6. *Areas of function.* Areas of function should be determined in which cooperative endeavor will take place. This concerns both the thing to be done and the people to do it. The determination of the functional aspects will grow out of a careful survey of needs and conditions.

7. *Selection of means of accomplishment.* Materials, agencies, activities, and institutions and techniques should be selected in accordance with their usefulness in achieving policy objectives.

8. *Evaluation and reconstruction.* Provision should be made for the means of evaluating and reconstructing the policy of mutual interaction

frequently on progressively higher levels of cooperation and efficiency in accordance with needs, conditions, and attitudes.

ULTIMATE GOAL

The aim, naturally, is to achieve the highest level of democratic cooperation in establishing a policy of mutual interaction. Much ground-work will need to be laid and a careful study of the community made. At the same time, agencies, materials, activities, and personnel within the school will need to be studied and coordinated into a working program. Competent leadership is most essential. Thorough understanding on the part of all concerned should characterize every plan and procedure.

A program of school-community relations based upon a policy of mutual interaction should be approached gradually. Both the school and the community should be prepared slowly. Time is an important factor. Possibly only a few of its characteristics may be discernible at first. Others will unfold later. Patience may become a virtue when reactions set in from time to time. Yet the principles of the policy would appear to be in harmony with the principles of the democratic process, for which public education primarily exists.

SUGGESTED PROCEDURE IN DEVELOPING A POLICY

POLICY PATTERNS

Four types of policies have been set forth above, each one growing out of a definite philosophical approach to school-community relations. Two observations should be noted concerning them: (1) the peculiar characteristics of each policy are well marked; and (2) there is a certain progressive development from one policy to another which makes higher levels of policy attainable.

It is important to point out that the education of the people of a community in regard to school-community relations should proceed developmentally. It is important to begin with all groups concerned *where they are*, just as one does in any educational process. As experience is gained, and as those associated learn to work together, the policy in force can be appraised and reconstructed on progressively higher levels. Care should be taken that the policy to be developed fits existing needs and conditions; it should not be warped to fit a pattern. It is possible that the adopted policy will contain characteristics cutting across the types suggested. The policy should be written out, made available, and clearly understood by all those concerned. It should be given official sanction by

the board of education, administrative leadership, and the executive council or other coordinating body.

STEPS IN POLICY DEVELOPMENT

The following steps should be observed:

1. *Recognition of authority*—Authority wherever reposed should always be recognized. Whether this is vested in the board of education, the educational leader, or the council, it must be accepted. Policies should be properly adopted. Wherever responsibility is delegated, the authority to act should be accepted along the lines of good administrative procedure.

2. *School and community needs*—Good policy making should proceed on a "get the facts" basis, a survey of school and community needs and facilities, the collection of necessary information, and the resources available and necessary to the development of the program.

3. *Setting the policy level*—There are two important approaches to setting the policy level: (1) the purposes of education viewed in the larger sense as well as those of the school in particular, and (2) the level of understanding of both school personnel and community groups in regard to good schools and how to attain them. Policies should be periodically appraised and adjusted upward.

4. *Education of cooperating personnel*—Assuming that the educational leader and the steering committee are thoroughly imbued with the spirit of the enterprise, cooperating personnel—the board of education, teachers, pupils, parents, and all associated in any way—must be constantly educated in regard to this same spirit and the plans to be accomplished. Techniques of accomplishment should fit the occasions.

5. *Areas of service to be rendered*—The policy as adopted should apply to the specific areas of service. It should recognize the problems to be solved, select those who can best accomplish results, and recognize the achievements of cooperating groups in getting the job done and the need for further education in working together.

6. *Other factors*—Further emphasis should be placed on ways and means to inform the participants, interpret the program, and create cooperative situations. Since any program will necessitate some financial outlay, provision should be made for funds necessary to achieve best results. For the most part, this is the responsibility of the board of education; however, participating organizations, such as parent-teacher associations, should be recognized in any sharing they propose. Provision should be made for emergencies likely to arise, such as changes in economic or social conditions, political changes affecting the board, changing educational or community leadership, and opposing personalities and groups. Although it is not always possible to foresee all such conditions, it is well to recognize the principle of holding something in reserve in order to meet emergencies.

7. *Evaluating and revamping the policy*—Throughout this discussion we have emphasized the advisability of proceeding toward higher levels of policy making. To this end the policy should be under constant scrutiny. Criticisms should be welcomed, and desirable changes made from time to

time. This may involve some changes in personnel, which may be painful at times. The greater welfare of childhood would appear to be a challenge more important than the investiture of a single individual or group.

MEETING DIFFICULTIES

Perhaps there is no function of educational administration requiring greater insight and involving more challenge than that of policy making. Many difficulties will be encountered; these should be taken in stride. The educational leader well prepared for his task and sound in his philosophy may find a conservative community with an equally conservative board of education irritating and sometimes antagonistic. He will need to move slowly, with great patience, constantly educating all with whom he comes in contact. Even then the conservative forces may be too difficult to overcome, at least for a time. There may be selfish individuals and interests concerned more with personal considerations than with education. The educational leadership itself may be weak-kneed, indifferent, or dominated by some motive or individual. It may be characterized by professional inertia or a lack of vision. Friction within the board, among the teachers, among the leadership within the community organizations, or elsewhere will cause heartaches. All of these may result in a reversion to a *laissez-faire* attitude and policy.

The cooperative principle should permeate gradually the development of any forward-looking policy just as rapidly as those associated with the enterprise are readied for it. Time and patience and tactful leadership are essential to progress.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Examine the statement, "A sound philosophical approach should underlie the formation of a policy of school-community relations."
2. Under what circumstances, if any, may a policy of *laissez-faire* be desirable? A policy of salesmanship?
3. What are some of the desirable outcomes of a policy built upon the philosophy of "selling the schools"? What are the objectives? Why may such a policy be said to be outmoded?
4. Identify and compare writers who advocate a policy of educational interpretation.
5. Classify the levels of cooperation as proposed by Courtis (see bibliographical entry, "N.E.A., 'Teachers and Cooperation'") in relation to each of the several policy patterns.

6. Why is it important to construct and adopt a policy to fit a given school community?
7. Set up a policy of school-community relations adapted to a specific community in accordance with the criteria proposed.

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CHAPTER 20

Organization and Administration

SUPERINTENDENT EVANS was beaming with satisfaction and confidence as he called the community to order. The school board had endorsed his proposals, which had previously been approved by the teachers and the parent-teacher association. The editor of the *Allison City Chronicle*, in an editorial, had praised the school board and the superintendent for their efforts in behalf of the children of Allison City, and had pronounced the plan to establish a program of school-community relations for Allison City the most significant forward step for public education and the community in a decade. In a radio speech the night before, Superintendent Evans had explained the plan to the citizens. Miss Warren, his secretary, had spent most of the morning answering telephone calls from citizens praising the movement or desiring further information. It was evident that Allison City was developing a new community consciousness.

Thirteen members, including Superintendent Evans, constituted the council. Mrs. Reynolds represented the school board, and Mr. Hayes the parent-teacher association. Mrs. Brown, because of her interest in the

community chest program, had been chosen to represent community organizations. The editor of the *Allison City Chronicle* and the mayor also represented the community. Miss Stevens and Mr. Jones were selected to represent the principals, and Miss Anderson, the English teacher, and Miss Kline, Rose Marie's teacher, represented the teachers. Two pupils had been selected from the high school. Miss Warren was acting as secretary.

"How shall we proceed to organize?" the superintendent was saying. Several suggestions were offered. After considerable discussion, it was agreed that the council as now organized was too large for detailed administrative responsibilities. It should act, however, as a policy-making body and appoint a smaller steering committee from among its members, with Superintendent Evans as chairman and director. To this, upon motion of the mayor, they all agreed. The steering committee as finally selected included Miss Stevens, Mr. Hayes, Mrs. Brown, and Superintendent Evans. It was proposed that this group work out the details of an organization and prepare a definite plan of school-community relations for Allison City, along the lines of the principles adopted by the school board, to be presented at the next meeting of the council. Each member of the council in turn offered suggestions to the committee, which Miss Warren carefully noted. The council adjourned to meet in two weeks. The editor of the *Chronicle* returned to his office to write up his story. The educational program of the Allison City public schools had now "made" the front page.

Since public-school relations is gradually assuming its rightful place as a major function of school administration, some plan of organization is necessary. Its form will depend upon many factors—the size of the community; its occupational, ethnic, and social character; attitudes toward community relations on the part of the board of education, the administration, the teachers, pupils, parents, and the community itself; and the educational problems, needs, and conditions. Perhaps the impetus to organization will in part determine its nature.

The plans of organization which are proposed include executive direction full or part-time, the school-coordinated council, and the community-coordinated council. Specific plans which can be applied in each community may be developed from these basic plans. Attention should be given to the selection of the personnel, both directing and participating or advisory. Any plan of organization should be adapted to the community's

schools, needs, problems, and other factors and should be in harmony with the prevailing philosophy and policy.

NECESSITY FOR ADEQUATE ORGANIZATION

Whether the school system is large or small, rural, urban, or suburban, enjoying a full measure of support or lacking it, some form of organization is needed. Personnel should be carefully selected and provision made for necessary community contacts and financial support. The organization and its administration should be in keeping with its dignity as a major administration function.

The nature of the organization should depend upon the prevailing philosophy and policy. The nature of the policy will naturally determine the personnel to be selected and the program to be adopted. Unless both philosophy and policy are carefully thought through, the organization may become a haphazard affair.

As we have pointed out, the initiative to provide a skeletal organization usually resides within the school. It may be assumed by the board of education, the superintendent, a principal, or a group of teachers. If the impetus comes from outside the school, school officials should form a definite part of the organization, and proper authority, wherever it may reside, be adequately recognized. If the superintendent, a principal, or a teacher takes this initiative, he should be careful to obtain board of education approval. The evidence of a spirit of cooperation in these early stages is essential.

THE SCHOOL BOARD AS A POLICY-MAKING BODY

When a citizen accepts the responsibility of membership on a board of education, he becomes the trustee of a great educational enterprise. He is an educational representative of the citizens of the community and their children. He is an agent of the state, being entrusted with the responsibility of supervision of a legally mandated state institution. The school-board member's responsibilities in school-community relations, as in other functions, falls into two classes: (1) his functions and activities as a member of a board, and (2) his activities as an individual and a representative citizen. In carrying out these functions, he is naturally bound by the laws of his state, rules and regulations over which he has little control, and administration practices which are general in application and professional in nature. But this is not all. He is a maker of policy, and he is bound to improve the school enterprise in the interests of all boys and

girls. He is a representative, interpreter, trustee, and defender of the schools in his community contacts. To this end he must know good schools, know his own schools, improve and evaluate the work of the schools, and require that responsible personnel perform their duties accordingly.

In organizing the functions of school-community relations, the school board may be said to have the following functions: (1) set up the means by which they may thoroughly understand (a) their own schools, (b) their own community, and (c) legal mandate rules and regulations; (2) recognize the significance of the function of school-community relations and determine a policy for its administrations; (3) approve the appointments of key personnel and determine nature of the organizations; (4) approve program plans; and (5) appraise the results.

As the program of school-community relations proceeds, the school board should observe the following as essential to its success: (1) the conduct of school board business should be above reproach; (2) the superintendent, not the board, is the administrator; (3) good working conditions should be maintained; (4) the public should be treated courteously at all times; (5) a cooperative attitude with the community should be maintained; and (6) each member has an obligation as an individual to conduct himself with restraint, tact, tolerance, good taste, and selfless devotion to his community relations, in which he may be called upon as a public speaker, spectator, or associate, submerging personal ambition or group advantage.

THE SUPERINTENDENT AS EDUCATIONAL LEADER

The person directly responsible for the administration of the educational program is its chief executive officer, whatever his title or in whatever capacity he may be serving. It is his duty to organize, coordinate, and administer the program, direct policies, and recommend personnel. Since *school-community relations* is one of his functions, it must be administered with the same care as any other function. Leadership in the superintendent involves ability to direct the activities of others and to get them to follow willingly. To a considerable extent he will reflect the philosophy of the enterprise and develop the policies to be adopted. He will supply the dynamics needed for the proper motivation of the staff and the program to be placed in operation.

PERSONALITY

Apart from the influence which a superintendent exerts through his position, his personality is a force of great significance in school-

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community relations. There are many facets of his personality which are reflected in the program. His ability as a public speaker, his social qualities, his charm and tact, his personal appearance, the confidence he inspires, his egotism or the lack of it, his ability to subordinate himself for the good of the organization, and his character and personal example are all significant factors in educational statesmanship.

THE SUPERINTENDENT AS A GOOD SCHOOL MAN

The best test of a superintendent is whether he maintains a good school, one which fits the needs and problems of the community, one in which the boys and girls learn and are happy, and one in which a spirit of confidence is maintained. As the superintendent is supported in his leadership, he is enabled to continue his leadership to higher levels.

DANGERS TO BE AVOIDED

There are many dangers to be avoided as the superintendent proceeds with the development of his policies. He must be careful to avoid being *labeled* to his detriment, as often happens when he is forced to take a stand on controversial issues. A change of board personnel may reflect community change in which he may be caught "in the middle." He may lead where there is none to follow. Something in his personality or private life may impair an otherwise useful career. He may not be thoroughly prepared for the tasks ahead and unwilling to admit it or make the preparation.

This analysis of the superintendent as the educational leader is of peculiar significance when applied to his leadership in school-community relations. Each educational leader needs to examine himself and his leadership in the light of these principles.

PLANS OF ORGANIZATION

Four principal plans of organization are suggested as patterns in the structure of the school-community relations function. These can be accommodated to all types of programs and designed to fit communities of different sizes and descriptions. Each must be considered in relation to the philosophical approach and policy chosen.

FULL-TIME DIRECTOR

Nature of Position. In the largest cities, a full-time director of school-community relations is now generally employed to develop this important

function and program and to coordinate activities and services. In the past it has been common to select a full-time person to direct such periodic school activities as school campaigns. In the next group of cities (population above 50,000) the duties of such a director are often combined with such other administration duties as research, pupil personnel services, or adult education. Occasionally an assistant or associate superintendent may serve in this capacity.

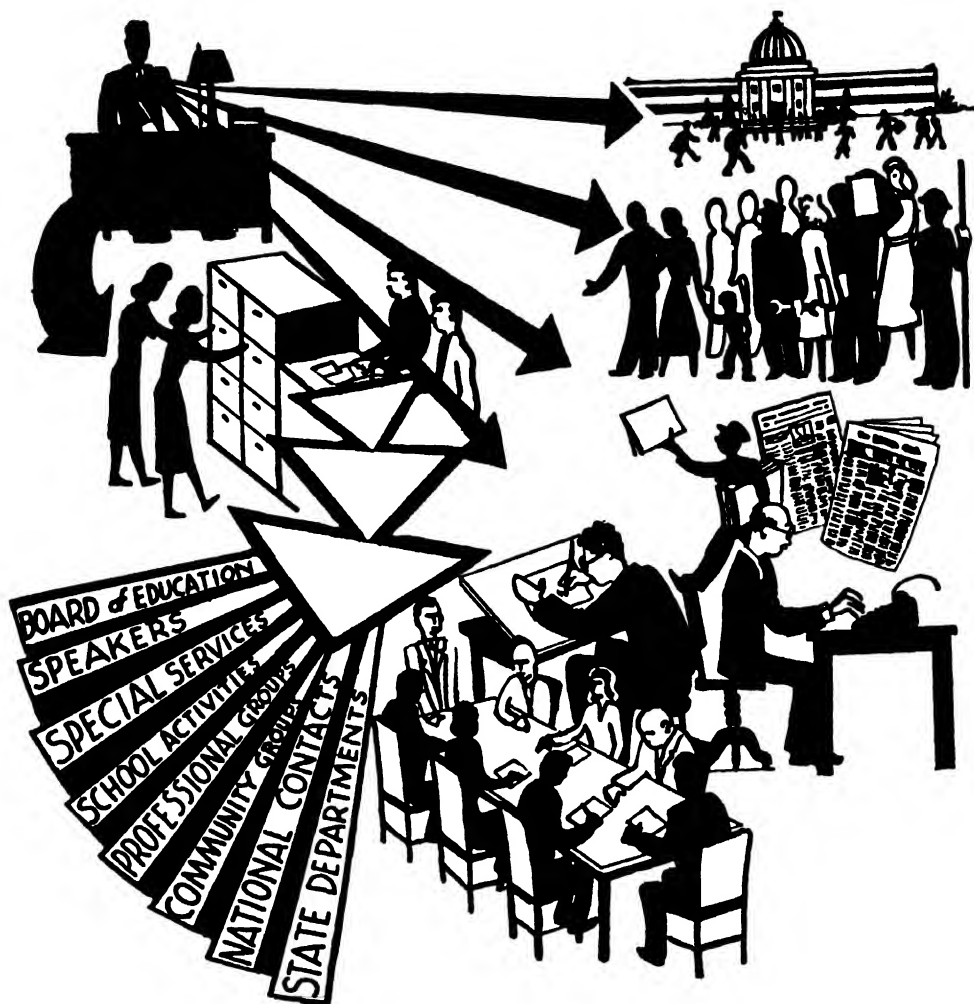
In this type of organization, the major responsibility of the director is indicated by his title—in this instance, some variant of public relations. This title and corresponding emphasis is of considerable importance.

Qualifications. The director of school-community relations should be well qualified to assume his duties. He should have an adequate educational preparation with some emphasis on the principles and techniques of public relations. If possible, an advanced course of study in some institution specializing in this field will be of considerable value. He should be interested in his work, with a background of broad human relationships and understanding. He must have a sense of humor and a sense of proportion and be courteous and considerate, able to cooperate with others, tactful, and able to meet trying situations successfully. He must be dependable, truthful, and reasonable, yet a man of convictions and courage.

These qualifications suggest the need for an individual of high caliber. He must be well prepared, with a rich academic and professional background, and grounded in a knowledge of research and its uses. He must know the educational field, how to teach, how to supervise. He must have mastered the fundamentals of school administration—both theory and practice. Moreover, he must know something of journalism and be a good speaker and writer. Above all, he must know people, their virtues and frailties, and, in knowing them, know himself.

Many of the specific duties of public-relations directors have been conceived largely in terms of publicity or informational and interpretative service, as in the performance of a single group of functions in a school campaign. Rarely have directors conceived the possibilities of school-community relations in its broader aspects, as a cooperative endeavor in the interests of complete child welfare. It is doubtful whether directors of *publicity* could administer a program built upon the latter policy. We can thus see clearly the importance of the proper philosophical approach as a qualification.

Staff. The size and nature of the staff essential to the organization should be determined by the director in accordance with the policy, the problems to be solved, and the program to be developed. Abilities should be utilized wherever located—for example, journalistic experience in an



THE RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE DIRECTOR OF SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

English teacher, ability to sketch in an art teacher, or public speaking skill in an assistant superintendent, teacher, or president of the parent-teacher association. A good executive should always be alert to latent abilities in his staff and utilize them to best advantage. Some individuals never know the significance of their abilities until discovered; others have been waiting for just such an opportunity.

PART-TIME DIRECTOR

Centralization. In smaller towns and cities and in counties and rural areas, the superintendent may personally assume the direction of school-

community relations, including this function along with his other responsibilities.¹ He may assume certain duties himself and assign others to a staff officer or a principal or committee. The superintendent as educational leader generally retains this responsibility because of his relations with the board, the community, and the staff. Many superintendents have little confidence in their staff members' ability to deal with the public successfully, even forbidding them by policy to address community organizations or to give out information without approval. Here what is first needed is a program of internal relations. On the other hand, the success of many school systems lies in the dynamic leadership which the superintendent exercises through school-community relations.

Decentralization. In the absence of any central administrative policy or organization, the several building principals of a school system may develop programs of school-community relations around their own school communities. There are many advantages in such a plan of organization: (1) the superintendent may find that the principal is the key person about whom to build the program; (2) one principal may be doing an excellent piece of work in his own school with a parent-teacher association or because of some other interest; (3) a certain school may offer strategic possibilities, because of the nature and interest of the parents, key individuals or organizations in the community, or because of the school's peculiar problems; (4) building principals, with their teachers, may offer competitive possibilities with one another, perhaps to stimulate those with little interest or ambition; (5) the impetus to organization may come from a community organization such as a parent-teacher association, or from a teacher or group of teachers desirous of initiating a program experimentally. It is entirely possible that a superintendent may be forced by his own inertia to recognize a "going organization" wherever it may exist in spite of his own indifferent attitude or policy. In such an instance, he is wise if he senses leadership where it exists and seeks not to oppose it.

Qualifications. Although it is not to be expected that part-time direction of school-community relations, whatever its form, will require the exacting qualifications indicated for the full-time director, the qualifications of such a leader should be as high as possible, and those indicated above offer goals toward which to strive. What has been said above in regard to the staff and the discovery and utilization of desirable skills applies here as well.

¹ Hickey found this to be the typical plan of organization. See John M. Hickey, *The Direction of Public School Relations in Cities of the United States* (Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1945).

SCHOOL-COORDINATED COUNCIL

Impetus. As one considers the many personal relationships involved in the educative process, especially as viewed on its higher levels, its co-operative nature appears. These relationships are more deeply appreciated as boards of education, administrators, principals, teachers, pupils, and noninstructional staff members become more sympathetically sensitive to them. A form of organization should be developed which meets adequately relationships of this higher order.

In setting up such an organization, the impetus may come from the administration, from a teachers' professional organization, or from some spontaneous realization of educational problems, needs, and conditions. The purposes here may extend to the development of a greater spirit of cooperation within the school system through the pursuit of common educational objectives, the solution of pressing problems, and the general improvement of home-school-community relations. Indeed, the feeling of "belonging" through participation is of major interest to its success.

Procedure. Procedure in setting up an organization based upon this principle is to call together representatives of the administrative staff and the teachers, with representation accorded later to the board of education, to pupils, the noninstructional staff, and interested parents or community leaders. As an outgrowth of this conference, or through the outcomes of a previous survey of school problems, attention should be focused upon some definite need or problem in effecting a plan of organization.

Under skillful leadership, an effective organization can be brought about as a result of such a conference. A small coordinating council may be formed within the larger unit under the direction of a chairman who may be the superintendent, an assistant superintendent, a principal, or, in certain instances, a teacher to whom available time has been given. The larger representative school council may be retained for policy making and direction, meeting as occasion demands. The smaller coordinating council becomes the steering committee under selected executive leadership.

Duties. It is important to emphasize that the school-coordinated council should, under proper authoritative direction and approval, assume large responsibilities for policy and program development and personnel selection. It should meet frequently enough to exchange ideas, discuss school and community problems, and make recommendations or decisions. Moreover, it should outline the duties of those who may be called upon to perform them. From time to time it should report to the larger representative council, which should determine the philosophical ap-

proach as well as the general scope of the program. Membership in, and the organization of, the larger representative council should be rather loose.

The recognition of administrative authority is a necessary aspect of any form of organization for school-community relations within the school. The administrative head will want to take at least some part, especially to be assured that the adopted program is in accord with general administrative policy. Skillful is that administrator who can achieve these ends with the full cooperation of his board of education, his staff personnel, and his community *without imposition*.

Time. In adapting this plan of organization to larger school systems, an increased allotment of time for public-relations direction is necessary. It is difficult to make any arbitrary rule in this connection, since much depends upon local needs and problems, personnel, and funds available. Where such direction is instituted, adequate time should be allocated. The larger the city, the greater the need for full-time direction.

The Secretariat. The school-community council plan of organization, in the absence of any form of full- or part-time direction, will require a secretary and some office space. A small school community will need a good secretary only a few hours monthly, but a larger community will require a half- or full-time person, with additional assistance as the needs require. The cost of such service should be borne by the council. The secretary and assistants should have some business training and possibly some social-service preparation and experience. They should be of pleasing personality, tactful, and diplomatic in dealing with people.

The secretary's office should become a clearing house for the business and activities of the coordinating council, gathering and disseminating information, coordinating activities among the several schools, teachers, and community organizations, and carrying out the decisions of the council. It is obvious that under skillful leadership the office of the secretary can become a very busy place. One of the great advantages of a secretariat in smaller communities, counties, and rural areas is the possibilities it offers for isolated or unorganized communities and groups to join forces for better cooperation and less duplication of effort. Communities situated less advantageously can be stimulated to greater action in this way.

COMMUNITY-COORDINATED COUNCIL

Community Influence. Early New England patterns of community living have had a profound influence on our social institutions and mores, especially in smaller communities. There are many counterparts of the town meeting and corner grocery in developing community mindedness

and solving community problems. In solving community problems, group action is more effective, and often some institution or agency becomes active in a particular area, working toward the common good.

Within the past few years there seems to have occurred a definite return to the earlier conception of community coordination of community functions and activities—perhaps because there are more problems to solve and because we are learning to work together more effectively. Community councils are to be found throughout the United States, especially in the larger cities. We have already noted that in several hundred smaller cities the community chest organization carries on the functions of a council. Although community councils differ widely in plan, organization, and purpose, they seem to have the following characteristics:

1. They are organized on a community or neighborhood basis.
2. They bring together laymen and representatives of many community organizations interested in the welfare of children, youth, the family, and the community.
3. They act as a coordinating body rather than as an agency.
4. Membership is voluntary.
5. They offer common services to member organizations in the belief that unity and cooperation result in greater strength and action.

Purposes and Scope. It should be observed that the purposes and scope of the community-coordinated council are more inclusive than that of the school-coordinated council. It is concerned with social problems—as, for example, delinquency, housing, safety, and the family—as well as education. Although most councils lean heavily on public education, for the solution to community problems, public education in turn is directly concerned in these community problems and should cooperate fully.

An increasing number of educational leaders feel that, despite the continued expansion of the school program and its special services, the public school will remain ineffective without full community understanding and support. These can best be achieved through some form of community-centered cooperative organization.

With these educational and social issues and problems demanding attention, the community-coordinated council plan of organization has been proposed as the most desirable solution. Effective coordination of school-community programs has been developed in many localities, seeking to study, plan, and improve community and public school conditions and relationships.

Impetus. The impetus for organizing a community-coordinated council may come either from within or outside the school. It may be initiated by the board of education or the superintendent, by the parent-teacher

association, the Women's Club, or any other agency or group of agencies or individuals. The school, however, can provide the most logical impetus, not only because of its strategic position as the community educational agency, but because of public confidence and resources. In any event, the public school should take a leading part in the movement, not only to justify further its own existence, but also because of the significant opportunities thus made available.

Call to Organization. Immediate school or community problems—such as a safety program, juvenile delinquency, crime prevention, public health, or recreation—may well provide the occasion for a call to organization. At the first meeting the purposes should be clarified, the plan of organization outlined, the scope of services to be rendered specified, and the policy and program planned. It is important to determine the participating organizations to be included and the form of representation to be accorded them. Provision should be made for contact with other organizations or activities which may render services.

Areas of Service. It is important that areas of school and community service be marked out clearly, selection being made of those for *immediate* and those for *ultimate* study and improvement. The selection of these areas of service might well be made on the basis of a community survey or other objective means to ascertain their nature and urgency. The place of education and the public school should be definitely clarified, especially in so far as the problems of the school become the problems of the community and their solution becomes of mutual concern. Means should be provided for exchange of opinion through discussion groups, forums, or public meetings.

Leadership. Executive leadership must, of course, be provided, either on a full- or part-time basis. The leader may be the chairman or a member of the coordinating committee with sufficient free time and experience, or he may be employed by the committee. The size of the community, services to be rendered, and funds available will be factors here. The Queensboro Council of Social Agencies has set up characteristics of a good coordinating-committee executive:²

1. Background training or experience in community surveys, studies, and organization.
2. Knowledge of and contact with public and private agencies, their organization, function, and service (including schools, social agencies, libraries, community clubs and organizations, public and private health agencies).

² Prepared by the Queensboro Council of Social Agencies and quoted by Cranford and Yourman, "Community Coordination," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, 10:7 (Sept. 1936).

3. Experience as an able discussion leader, speaker, and publicist.
4. Personal qualifications that will make the coordinator sympathetic and accessible to the community.
5. Knowledge of current sociological trends in such fields as crime prevention, character education, health, housing, recreation, education, and adult education, and an unbiased objective attitude toward problems in community planning.
6. An ability to adapt to changing conditions and viewpoints with a maturity that warrants confidence in leadership and judgment.
7. An ability to initiate community activities and then to stimulate widespread participation and assumption of responsibility in the community.

Advisory Relationships. Many communities have developed other forms of organization, largely advisory in nature, which have been advocated as helpful in developing school-community programs. These may include a local advisory committee of laymen who will work in cooperation with the school or community council, a state advisory commission, committees of civic organizations, and technical advisors who may be called in from time to time. The services to be rendered by such advisory individuals and groups should be utilized in direct relationship to the solution of the problem in the designated area of service. Many of these have been discussed in Chapter 15.

DIVISION OF LABOR AND RESPONSIBILITY

Whatever plan of organization may be developed, a division of labor will be necessary among all those called upon to assume some responsibility and perform some duty. A good form of organization should provide adequately for *placing* this responsibility and definitely *allocating* the functions to be performed by each individual or group. The nature of these duties and responsibilities will vary in accordance with the size of the enterprise, type of the community, areas of service considered, personnel included, and intensity of action. Brief consideration will be given to the scope of these duties.

BOARD OF EDUCATION

As official state and community representatives of education, members of boards of education are legally responsible for the scope of the educational enterprise and its financial support. Being a representative body, the board is responsible for executive direction, records, reports, audits, performance of proper functions, cooperation in the interests of education, and remedial and evaluative educational activities.

The board of education should recognize public relations as a necessary school service. It should initiate or give official sanction to relations programs, activities, and projects. In their official capacity members make many contacts in the community, in which they reflect the school, its purposes, services, and needs. Unselfish smoothly functioning public service on the part of board members is one of the best indications of good school-community relations.

SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

The executive officer of the board of education is the superintendent of schools. He is responsible for the development, as an integral part of his program, of an educational philosophy, policy, and program of the school system, especially as these relate to school-community relations. Where the impetus comes from outside the school, he should cooperate fully in any resulting plan of organization or program. In smaller school systems he will be responsible for the policy and its underlying philosophy and will direct the program in whole or in part. In larger systems he will delegate some or all of these functions. He should work in close cooperation with any council or advisory form of organization. Naturally, there are many functions directly associated with his office which directly or indirectly pertain to public relations. Above everything else, he should believe in good public relations and do something about them.

DIRECTOR OR COORDINATOR

If a director of relations is named in any capacity, he becomes the *contact staff member* in charge. The nature and scope of his duties will depend largely upon the size of the school-community enterprise and the intensity of action. He may be a school official with other assignments or a school or community executive upon whose shoulders rests full responsibility for direction. He should be well prepared and given adequate responsibility and support. He is the director of the enterprise, laying out the specific duties of those associated with him. Naturally his duties will be adapted to the needs and problems. Where the superintendent of schools performs these functions, modification will need to be made to fit the occasion and the adopted program.

THE PRINCIPAL

As the school leader of a school community, the building principal comes in close contact with the parents and patrons, whose educational thinking is often in terms of the school which their children attend. When programs are developed about his school community and its problems, the

principal is a responsible leader and has specific duties. He may need to adapt the program and give it local direction. In some instances the duties of the superintendent and the principal are identical; in others, the principal is a coordinator. In all his activities, he should conform to the general educational policy, unless given free rein by the administrative authority. Many successful councils, parent-teacher associations, and other elements of successful relations programs have been initiated by energetic school principals.

THE TEACHER

"As is the teacher, so is the school" may well be applied to the teacher as a relations medium. The teacher is a builder of values and attitudes. His relationships with the home and the community, through the pupils or directly, are of pronounced value. He will do well if he knows the objectives of the school enterprise and is in harmony with them. Working in coordination with the administration, the home, and community organizations, he has many opportunities. Many of these may be worked out through the school progress and extracurricular activities of the pupils. Contacts with community organizations offer opportunities. Especially should he be interested in the peculiar problems of the community and seek a way to solve them through the school. Care should be taken, however, that in so doing he does not neglect his major function as a teacher. Every effort should be made to emphasize this primary relationship with the children.

THE PUPILS

Boys and girls should be considered an integral part of any organization in developing a school-community relations program. They can frequently be messengers of good will and service. Moreover, under skillful leadership they will like to contribute their help. Much can be accomplished through the curriculum and the activities, such as musical, dramatic, and athletic events, the school publications, exhibitions, contests, and commencement exercises. Each child is an active individual, and each is a contact point with the home and the community. Care should be taken that the pupil reflects the school attitude positively.

THE PARENTS

As the teacher represents the state's control over the child, the parent represents a far more fundamental relationship. Thus, certain responsibilities must be assumed by them which they may not evade legally. The

range of parental interest, however, varies widely both from community to community and within communities.

On the basis of an intelligent understanding of the aims and objectives of education, parents should be encouraged to find places in the educational processes to suit their capacities, interests, and needs. Points of participation may include the administration, the curriculum, the physical plant, child welfare, child study, parent organizations, recreational program, community leisure-time activities, and adult-education programs. The sponsorship of activities directly related to these forms of participation may rest either within or outside the school. Responsibility and interest go together; parents become suddenly interested when given some responsibility. The plan of organization should provide for this interest.

KEY INDIVIDUALS OR GROUPS

In many communities key persons or groups may be able to render invaluable services. These should be sought out and their advice and cooperation solicited. Usually they will be pleased to participate. A place should be found for them in whatever capacities they can contribute.

ORGANIZATIONS AND LEADERS

There are organizations to be found in every community capable of rendering some service in the development of a school-community relations program. Leadership, wherever located, if it can render service, should be sought out, the possibilities studied, and cooperation developed.

NONINSTRUCTIONAL SCHOOL STAFF

There are many members of the noninstructional staff in the school system capable of rendering relations service and quite willing to do so if given the opportunity. No one thing makes so much for a cooperative attitude as a feeling of recognition and belonging. The school clerk, as she meets people from the community in the course of the day, may do much to develop desirable relations. The school custodian, living as he does in the community, a taxpayer and citizen, is another such medium. The school nurse, home and school visitor, and attendance officer make community contacts, as do other members of the staff. The place and function of each should be determined as the plan of organization is developed.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Compare the roles of the board of education and the superintendent of schools in developing school policies. Are the functions you propose applicable to setting up an organization for school-community relations? What role does the community play?
2. Compare several educational leaders of your acquaintance as to their activities in school-community relations. In each case appraise the situation and offer suggestions.
3. Indicate occasions within your experience in which the impetus for school-community relations came from the parents; the board of education; the superintendent; the teachers; others.
4. Show how a policy and plan of organization should be predicated upon a workable philosophical approach.
5. Evaluate the plan of organization for public relations as proposed for improvement in Cincinnati. (See *Survey Report of the Cincinnati Public Schools*.)
6. Indicate several variations of a plan of organization which provides for a director of public relations.
7. Evaluate the school-coordinated council as a plan of organization in districts of various sizes.
8. Evaluate several plans of organization which include a community-coordinated council. (See *Journal of Educational Sociology*.)
9. Show variations in organization where a policy of salesmanship is used; a policy of interpretation; a policy of mutual interaction.
10. Set up a plan of organization for a selected community in which you attempt to incorporate the suggestions outlined.

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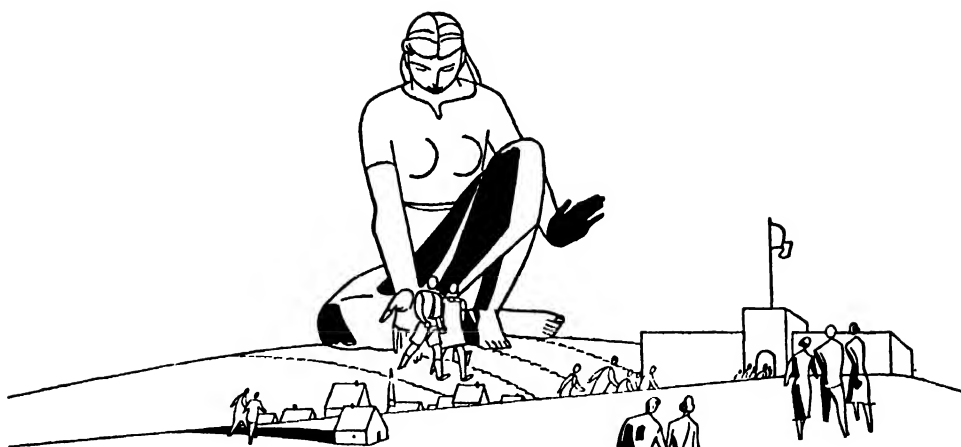
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PART SIX

BUILDING A
CONSTRUCTIVE PROGRAM



CHAPTER 21

Essentials of Program Making

ONCE UPON a time two superintendents of schools were having a conversation concerning school-community relations in their respective school systems. Said the first, "Now, in my school we have a director to whom I have given over this entire responsibility. He is a versatile individual with other responsibilities, but he has the knack of making friends and getting people to do things. We have few problems with our community and we all seem to get along together." Said the second, "I'll admit that your school system has done quite well with your public relations, but why all that bother and fuss about a director and committees and a program? In our school we just meet each situation as it arises with sound common sense applied to human relations. After all, people are human beings and they will respond to reason and understanding and leadership. But we never go around hunting trouble."

Now, which of these superintendents had a program of school-community relations? The first, you say. Yet many would also say that the second used the best judgment. Hardly so, since good planning and sound program making are essential to the success of any enterprise.

This chapter indicates the steps necessary in setting up and administering a program of school-community relations. It proceeds with the assumption that the reader now has a knowledge of the concepts of school-community relations and the policies which might form the framework for procedure, the ways and means, agents and activities which may be used in programs, how to set up the organization, and the personnel essential for its operation and success.

PROGRAM PRELIMINARIES

AUTHORITY TO PROCEED

In most instances the school finds it necessary to take the initiative in planning and administering a constructive program of school-community relations. Since it is an administrative function, authority to proceed should first become a matter for consideration and approval by the board of education. Unless otherwise indicated, the superintendent of schools is entrusted with this responsibility. This may be delegated to a line or staff officer, or to some form of organization previously agreed upon. It is wise not to proceed to formal organization without some preliminary study, especially in untried situations. It is well to proceed cautiously.

LEGAL CONSIDERATIONS

Public education has a legal basis which may be found principally in the school laws of the state and decisions of the courts. With these the educational leader should have some familiarity, especially if they pertain in any way to school-community relations. State laws may limit or make impossible the project under consideration. The state requires levying of school taxes, reports of various kinds, public accounting of school funds, enforcement of school attendance laws, school census, and many other activities which reach into the home and the community. Any one or more of these may be incorporated into the program and must be understood to be effective.

SELECTION OF LEADERSHIP

Much emphasis has been laid on the importance of sound leadership. By virtue of his position, the superintendent is not only the school leader but also the community leader.¹ Moreover, he must accept an active role

¹ The reader will find an excellent discussion of this point of view in *Developing Leaders for Education*, a Report of a Work-Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (1947), Chap. II.

in both school and community planning. He must decide whether to retain active direction of this function or to delegate it to a staff officer. In a smaller community he is more likely to retain direction. However, it may be delegated to principals or to a committee.

COOPERATION WITH THE COMMUNITY

The educational processes which produce the full development of children need the full understanding and cooperation of the home and community. This does not mean that the approach to the community is a one-way street. Where the initiative lies within the community to seek the school's cooperation in the formation of a community council, the solution of certain community problems, or in individual or group suggestions for school improvement, there should be a sympathetic ear and, as far as possible, a cooperative response on the part of the school. Wise leadership easily senses strategic situations and tactfully responds as the needs seem to require. It should always be kept in mind that the number of friends of the school should be continually increased.

POLICY

It is wise not to proceed without consideration of the policy to be followed. A preliminary inspection of the school community should indicate some basis upon which to establish the policy level. It will be subject, however, to subsequent revision.

PROCEEDING WITH CONFIDENCE

One significant characteristic of wise leadership is the feeling of confidence inspired in those who are associated with the enterprise. Careful planning will do much to bring this about. The importance of a continuing creative force should not be overlooked. If this inspiration lies within the superintendent who has delegated the responsibility to others, greater confidence will be engendered in him if they feel the evidence of his inspiration through continued support. In any undertaking, there can be no substitute for inspired leadership.

INITIATING THE PROGRAM

PRELIMINARY INSPECTION OF THE SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

It is assumed that the designated person in charge has made some study of his own school system, its objectives, organization, program, problems, needs, teachers, other personnel, and pupils. This preliminary

inspection should reveal attitudes toward school-community relations and possible ways to proceed. Care should be taken not to jump to early conclusions in the initial stages. Initial confidence may easily be misplaced. Too early a selection of problems to be solved may overlook others more pressing. Care should be taken that the director does not "ride off in too many directions" at the same time.

School-community relations programs should, of course, be considered in relation to the nature of the school district in which the community is located. There is the urban type, with its ethnic, social, and economic problems, its business, industrial, cultural, and other centers; the suburban type, largely residential and looking cityward; and the rural area, where life is simplified and interests are more individualized, and yet where each citizen knows rather intimately the others' affairs, where transportation and occupational conditions are factors in program making. Even in large cities, community areas will vary markedly. The size of the community will be a factor. The personnel available, the school and community leadership, the training and attitudes of the teachers will enter the picture.

We have repeatedly pointed out that school and community attitudes may influence program making considerably. Pressures from within and outside the school are factors to consider. As we have indicated earlier, board of education endorsement is essential; enough initial support from both school and community to assure some measure of success is highly desirable.

SELECTING THE APPROACH

Up to this point our attention has been directed to laying the groundwork upon which the program is to be built. The ultimate success of the program may depend upon these early efforts and upon a firm belief in the things to be accomplished and a willingness to try again if necessary. All approaches should be positive in character—that is, constructive and forward-looking. If the approach implies opposition to a given situation, it should propose something better. Parents will usually rally around a proposal which is reasonable, which they understand thoroughly, and which they believe offers more for their children. The approaches outlined below are, in a sense, arranged from the simplest to the complex; this is as it should be, especially where little has previously been attempted in school-community relations, where previous failures and unfavorable attitudes make any beginning difficult, or where the occasion seems to demand a cautious approach. Three approaches are proposed. The first is designated as meeting current needs and seizing upon opportunities. It is an elementary approach. The second is built around the organization of specific problems for study and solution. The third is more scientific:

the program is planned after a thorough survey of school and community needs and problems. Such a survey may be educational or community in nature, or a combination of both.

MEETING CURRENT NEEDS AND SEIZING UPON OPPORTUNITIES

INITIAL ACTIVITIES

A school administrator's simple desire to bring about happier relationships with the home and the community constitutes an elementary approach. Beginning with his own teachers or board members, he will create in them a desire for more wholesome home and community contacts. By his own enthusiasm he will create a desire to do something worth while. Small initial successes create more and more enthusiasm. Perhaps some slight response will be achieved through a talk to some community organization, such as the Rotary or Women's Club, or through the encouraging words of a few interested parents. Programs at first will be incidental rather than organized. All the while, with an eye to developing a future program, he will create in the board of education, teachers, pupils, parents, and community a desire for something better, more adequate, more wholesome. Advantage will be taken of each day and each occasion to create new opportunities. Before passing on to a more extended program, the school leader must, of course, believe in himself, in his cooperating personnel, and in the things he is now accomplishing and hopes to accomplish. He will pause from time to time to survey his progress and re-evaluate ultimate goals.

EMPHASIZING THE NEEDS

In these activities emphasis should be laid on attention to the needs of the school. These may be no more than stated, but if continued emphasis is given to them, and their significance realized, support will be obtained. Opposition is bound to occur, especially if the proposal has previously been tried and has failed, or if well-consolidated positions are attacked. Care should be taken not to develop an argumentative situation in which tempers flare, harsh words are spoken, and the school leader is forced into an indefensible position. In such instances the program may perish before it has a chance to begin working.

THE OPPORTUNIST

From time to time within every school system and community occasions occur which create admirable opportunities for the development of school-community relations programs. Often of an unusual or emergency

nature, they necessitate some sort of immediate action. Examples may be campaigns for increased school support, school strikes, rise of a "tax justice" association, a destructive school fire demanding a new school building, or the breakdown of school support. Many such occasions arose during those years when school facilities and support were curtailed because of economic circumstances and something definite had to be done.

Wise school leadership, sensing strategic occasions in these situations, should seek to convert them into the development of desirable relations programs. Thus, financial embarrassments may serve as the basis for a program of information and interpretation. The organization and procedures of the school campaign to build a new school may become the nucleus around which a new relations organization and program on a continuous basis are developed. Taxpayers' groups may be converted into parent-teacher associations. Protest meetings of parents or community leaders may become the occasion for the formation of a school and community council. Ripe public opinion is utilized as the occasion for a worth-while and forward-looking program. Such occasions will call forth an aroused school personnel and citizenry. The school is suddenly discovered, perhaps more quickly than by other methods. If the focus of combined attention can be placed upon the *child's* welfare, the results will be more favorable.

The nature of the program which is developed as a result of the opportunist's approach may vary widely. It will depend upon the leadership, the occasion, and the media available or developed. At first it may lack both objectives and coordination. The solution of the immediate problem is, of course, the first consideration. Gradually, however, under wise sponsorship, a developing program should emerge.

A PROGRAM BASED UPON SPECIFIC SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY PROBLEMS

A second approach to developing a school-community relations program is to select certain problems and plan for their study and solution through cooperative action. The problems selected should be recognized as vital to the educational progress of the children and designed to stimulate community interest. Care should be taken not to select problems at the outset which are too controversial or which have little possibility of successful solution.

These problems should be selected through some group action—a committee or the parent-teacher association, if one exists. Care should be

taken that authority exists for the study of the problem. The approach should be positive and constructive. Clash of personalities and unpleasant incidents and occasions should be guarded against. A wide spread of responsibility should characterize the program, credit being given where credit is due. As a meeting of minds takes place, mutual interaction occurs. It is important that a solution be found, and in the solution, satisfaction prevail for all concerned. Genuine school and community interest in education often arises when a school problem is faced and solved through common endeavor.

The approach to the development of school-community programs through specific problems is one of expediency and should not be continued beyond the initial stage. Every opportunity should be taken to consolidate the policy, organization, and problem solutions into a better working arrangement.

A PROGRAM BASED UPON SURVEY OF THE SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

The limitations to the scope of school-community relations programs based upon the approaches described above are easily discernible. Eventually, these programs show some degree of adequacy. Care must be taken lest a piecemeal attitude toward public relations result; lest when the problem has been solved the occasion disappear, interest dissipate, and gains be lost. The bases for adequate programs of school-community relations can be scientifically determined only through a thorough study of needs and conditions. Some form of survey provides the means by which this may be accomplished.

THE EDUCATIONAL SURVEY

The educational survey is not new in the field of education. In its effects upon education and the public schools, it is one of the most distinctive and energizing educational movements yet developed. It seeks to analyze and evaluate the public school, its personnel, its policies, its work, and its support—matters with which the community is seriously concerned. As we have pointed out surveys affect three aspects of public-school relations: (1) public relations as interpreted or evaluated by school surveys, (2) publicity given school surveys, and (3) the effects of school surveys upon public relations.²

² See Chapter 18 for a more detailed discussion of the educational survey.

Survey reports present to public-school officials and the community at large an unbiased evaluation of the work of the public schools. The findings are, or should be, scientific, impartial, thorough, inclusive, and constructive. The recommendations evolving from the survey naturally form bases upon which relations programs may be based.

THE COMMUNITY SURVEY

The social-survey movements and techniques have been presented in Chapter 18. The community survey should reveal the nature of the community, its people, its resources, its industries, its institutions, and its problems. It may be comprehensive or it may deal with one or more aspects of community life—youth, occupations and industries, recreation, or juvenile delinquency.

In the collection of information for surveys, written records, adequately organized, classified, and interpreted, are essential. As information is made available, emotional bias and personal misunderstandings must be subordinated to the purpose of the information—namely, the welfare of the child. All sources of information must be studied carefully and used in formulating the program. Use should be made of material already collected, such as in other recently conducted surveys. Care must be taken that all information is not made freely available to unauthorized persons or used unwisely by overenthusiastic but untrained individuals.

Survey results have been widely used to develop programs of social planning. They reveal the needs of the community, extensive overlapping of programs and duplication of community services, individuals and groups in need of the services to be rendered, location of available services, institutions, agencies, and leadership, and, above all, a sensitivity to the need for cooperative endeavor.³

In any well-developed program of community planning, the public school will play a prominent part. The public school must be viewed as an integral part of community life and activity. Educationally, it must play a dominant role. The success of the whole movement will probably depend upon the integration of the community's services, under the guidance of adequate objectives, leadership, and cooperative action. The community survey, through its disclosures, should assist in bringing about this desired end.

³ For examples of programs of community planning based upon surveys, See Harry Arthur Wann, "Social Planning in a Community," *Journal of Educational Sociology* (April 1938), and Bertha Smith, "The Yonkers Plan of Community Organizations," *Journal of Educational Sociology* (Jan. 1938); see also recent issues of the *Journal of Educational Sociology*.

DEVELOPING THE PROGRAM

DEFINING THE AREAS

The information and problems revealed through survey procedures should form the basis of the development of the program. The range of problems from which a selection can be made offers one suggestion. It is much better, however, to select areas of service and define the limits of each carefully. Growing out of well-defined school and community needs or problems, such areas as educational interpretation, school support, curriculum development, better facilities, health and child welfare needs, crime and delinquency, recreation, safety education, respect for law and authority, and community use of school buildings might be selected. Various problems pertaining specifically to the school itself—salaries, transportation, tuition problems, home-school visitations, home reporting, and teachers and teaching—offer possibilities. These will vary markedly in every community; hence they must be studied *where they are* in order that an adequate selection can be made.

Areas of service selected for inclusion in the program should be chosen on the basis of immediate need, and should be added to or sloughed off gradually in the course of time. Perspective in time is highly necessary, provided that there is reasonable certainty as to how far in advance a program can be projected and needs and conditions discerned. Willingness to vary the program with changing conditions is much more necessary. At the same time, the program should not become top-heavy or one-sided, or have little likelihood of fulfillment. Interest should be sustained.

SETTING UP ATTAINABLE GOALS

The function of the public school in such a program is to discover those areas of service in which it can coordinate its program effectively in the community in order to carry out the educational objectives. Where is the greatest need? How can this need be adequately met? How can the school, the home, and the community be geared to meet the need? How can leadership be obtained and a program adopted? It is important to remember that, from the school's point of view, only those areas of service should be selected which can be prosecuted with vigor, promise of success, and the recognition of the cooperative principle.

Many educational leaders will want to shape the school-community

relations program so as to offer the greatest promise of success to the schools. But we must not overlook our obligation to the development of desirable social living within the community. Some desired goals to accomplish are: (1) the development of community consciousness, (2) a more effective utilization of community leadership and resources, (3) building of better understanding, (4) stimulation of community enterprise, (5) evaluation of the cultural level of the people, and (6) learning to work together with the school.

CONSOLIDATING THE ORGANIZATION AND PERSONNEL

It is assumed that at least a skeletal organization has been set up upon the initiation of the program. As the program unfolds, further attention must be given to the form of the organization as well as to those who are to participate in the program. Sometimes it is difficult to determine whether the form of organization should determine the program or the nature and scope of the program should determine the organization.

Both the form of the organization and the directing and participating personnel will influence the program emphasis. If the personnel of the organization are drawn entirely from the school, the scope of the program may be limited to problems within the school, thus ignoring community problems. If a community council on social planning, heavily weighted on the community side, disregards the school, either by choice or through lack of cooperation on the part of school authorities, the scope again will be limited. Ideally there should be some balance in personnel, either through direction or in an advisory relationship, to develop a program specifically suited to those principles indicated earlier in this chapter. Every program of school-community relations should look forward to the ideal of cooperative endeavor in the interests of complete child welfare, and adequate forms of participation should be developed with that end in view. Program making and execution is not a one-man job. Many should be associated in varying capacities. There should be a division of labor in terms of abilities, interests, opportunities, time, and necessity.

SELECTING THE MEANS

When a skilled carpenter starts to build a house, he will use, in each phase of the job, the tools best adapted for that purpose. The others remain in the kit ready for use as the occasion seems to require. In administering programs of school-community relations, the director of the program must choose the means best adapted to achieve results and arouse success. To this end he must know not only the nature and extent of all possible means but how to use them and when to apply them. Moreover,

he must appraise their effectiveness. For example, if the director is a poor public speaker and is unable to arouse public enthusiasm or be convincing in his approach, he should immediately withdraw from public contacts and be replaced by someone with speaking ability. Or, again, the mere fact that the community once had a parent-teacher association which did not succeed is no reason why such an organization should not be revived in order to become an effective means of cooperative endeavor.

In earlier chapters much emphasis has been placed on the means which can be used in school-community relations programs. These have been described and in many instances evaluated. So that they can be made more available, they have been classified in two charts. The first includes those means which are available within the school and under school control. The second includes those available within the community and under the immediate control of individuals, groups, or organizations not directly associated with the public school.

Both groups are divided into subgroups: (1) face-to-face contacts, involving socialized situations, and (2) indirect contacts, means which can be used where distance is a factor or where face-to-face contacts are neither possible or desirable. These should be studied for their peculiar fitness and utilized as they prove effective. The occasion itself often suggests the means. Wise leadership needs to inquire what each participant can do best and encourage him to do it.

PROGRAM REQUISITES

As the program proceeds, there are several essentials which should be kept in mind in order to give it vitality and direction. These have been previously discussed and will now be reviewed.

CHILD WELFARE

The establishment of a school-community relations program is often approached with mixed feelings. Individuals and groups now about to be associated for the first time may have a fixed framework of clannish thinking which has to be adjusted to meet a new and larger cooperative framework. In this adjustment new values need to be established. Perhaps the approach will be easier if one always keeps in mind that the purposes of public education lead to the welfare of the child. Some communities may have great difficulty in focusing attention on this concept; in others the whole educational process has through other means definitely become child-centered. The supreme purpose of education should be conceived as the development of rich and many-sided personalities fitted to a social pattern

**MEANS AVAILABLE WITHIN THE SCHOOL FOR SCHOOL-COMMUNITY
RELATIONS PROGRAMS**

FACE-TO-FACE CONTACTS

1. Addresses and talks by board and staff members and teachers
2. Administration of attendance (especially newer procedures)
3. Baccalaureate services (when held in school auditorium)
4. Clinics (a rapidly growing movement)
5. Commencement, class day, and other exercises associated with graduation or promotion
6. Forums (in the school)
7. Home visitations by:
 - a. staff members
 - b. teachers
 - c. school nurse
 - d. home and school visitors
8. Informal school visitation by parents and patrons
9. Information attendants and school guides (usually pupils)
10. Motion pictures of school activities
11. Organized parent-teacher cooperation:
 - a. parent-teacher associations
 - b. mothers' meetings
 - c. fathers' associations
12. Personal and social contacts by:
 - a. board members
 - b. staff members
 - c. noninstructional staff members
 - d. attendance department
 - e. teachers
 - f. public-relations director (if school official). These might include conferences, dinners, luncheons, casual chats, visits to key people, etc. They are becoming increasingly useful.
13. Public-address systems (when used for extraschool contacts)
14. Radio broadcasts (when arranged by school)
15. School clerk at desk or telephone
16. School exhibits
17. School journeys to points of community interest (increasing in favor)
18. School sessions (open to public)
19. Slides, posters, charts, and similar visual materials
20. Student activities:
 - a. club activities and school societies
 - b. dramatics
 - c. musical activities — school band and operettas
 - d. school assemblies
 - e. speech activities or debates
21. Use of public-school property—auditoriums, gymnasiums, and athletic fields—for activities of community organizations

INDIRECT CONTACTS

1. Bulletins, news letters, pamphlets, and similar school publications
2. Business-department contacts
3. Handbooks
4. House organs
5. Letters to parents
6. Noninstructional staff contacts and activities outside the school
7. Report cards
8. Research publications
9. School budget and its interpretation
10. School campaigns
11. School surveys
12. Student publications — school newspapers and yearbooks
13. Superintendent's and other official reports

MEANS AVAILABLE WITHIN THE COMMUNITY FOR SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS PROGRAMS

FACE-TO-FACE CONTACTS

1. Activities initiated in the community to improve
 - a. buildings
 - b. equipment
 - c. school sites
2. Baccalaureate services (when held in a community building)
3. Church:
 - a. weekday schools
 - b. religious instruction in the schools
 - c. religious services performed by school personnel
4. Civic clubs and similar organizations
5. Clinics:
 - a. health
 - b. pre-school
6. Commercialized forms of recreation
7. Community council (as an organization or through its committees)
8. Community educational activities:
 - a. public libraries
 - b. museums
 - c. private schools
9. Governmental agencies:
 - a. juvenile courts
 - b. safety patrols
 - c. police
 - d. mayor's office, city council
10. Leisure-time organizations
11. Motion pictures
12. Organized ethnic groups
13. Political clubs and societies
14. Pupil participation in community activities (without direct authorization of school officials)
15. Public forums
16. Public-relations director (if not school officer)
17. Recreation activities — public parks and playgrounds, recreation boards
18. Service clubs and activities
19. Tax leagues, real estate associations, and similar organizations
20. Women's clubs, mothers' clubs, and similar organizations
21. Youth service organizations—Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A., Boy Scouts, Girl Reserves, etc.

INDIRECT CONTACTS

1. Advertising materials of all types —book covers, rulers, samples, etc.
2. Publicity materials:
 - a. bulletins
 - b. circulars
 - c. handbills
 - d. pamphlets (dealing with school affairs to some degree)
3. The public press, including editorials, news, and paid advertising
4. The radio (when educational matters are concerned)
5. Slides, posters, charts and similar visual materials

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of living involving high American ideals and adequate knowledges and skills. With such a purpose the public school can progress backed by concerted community action in conformity with a proper conception of American democracy.

RECOGNITION OF VARYING ATTITUDES

Within the community may be found persons whose range of attitudes and activities toward the schools varies from sympathetic and helpful co-operation to indifference and downright opposition. This is to be expected. The educational leader must meet the situation as it exists and constantly endeavor to raise the tone of the community and win the support of the patrons for the schools.

TIMING THE PROGRAM

The timing factor should receive special emphasis as program making proceeds. Problems may be followed in sequence. Programs may be developed in one-, two-, three-, four-, or even five-year phases. Consideration should be given to program cycles, especially for certain parts of the program. One part of the program may be continuous, another intermittent; one part emphasized now, another later. New problems may arise or conditions change which will necessitate a complete program reorganization. Emergency situations may completely alter the best-laid plans. Objectives may change with changing conditions. All of these conditions should be taken fully into account in timing the program.

PROCEEDING TO HIGHER PHILOSOPHY AND POLICY LEVELS

Since the philosophy of cooperative endeavor is sound, and the policy of mutual interaction built thereon entirely workable, the educational leader will not slacken his efforts until he has attained it. Realizing that he must always begin *where he is*, he will, by constant education, gradually improve school-community relations and teach everyone concerned the principles of desirable cooperation. Continuity in the leadership may be essential to bring this about. Poor leadership should be replaced at once before damage is done. Previous failures in school-community relations programs have been found to be one of the most serious obstacles to overcome, but they should not be offered as excuses for present inertia.

ENLARGING THE COMMUNITY INTEREST

There is a great temptation to include within the program only those who indicate an interest and who cooperate in its development and to ignore those who are uninterested or who oppose its progress. Wise lead-

ership will seek constantly to *enlarge* community interest through information, logical argument, demonstrations, participation, and friendly contacts.

SUPPORT OF THE PROGRAM

Two kinds of support are essential to the success of a school-community program. The first of these is the usual moral support of the program and the leadership. Once the program has been established and agreed upon, there would appear to be an obligation to support it in every possible manner. Disagreement with the policies or the means used, or dislike of the persons associated with it, is no reason for indifference or opposition. Once committed, the program should be carried through to a successful conclusion unless, by agreement, it is altered or discontinued.

A second kind of support is financial. A budget substantial enough to maintain the program adequately should be agreed upon. Cheap publicity in the form of low-quality mimeographing may create a poor impression. The expenditure of a few dollars for flowers and decorations in good taste, creating a pleasing atmosphere, may mark the difference between success and the failure of an important public meeting.

The source of these funds is an open question. Should the board of education support the program in its entirety? This may seem desirable. Should the program be partly supported by the parent-teacher association, or through some school or community affair such as a concert or a card party? There would seem to be no objection to this method if public interest is thereby aroused and the objectives are not lost sight of. Support of the projects of many community councils is usually a community undertaking, through contributions of individuals and appropriations of organized groups. Whatever means of support, it should be ample in keeping with the scope and dignity of the program. Public funds should be honestly administered and carefully audited.

MUTUAL INTERACTION APPLIED

Programs of school community relations organized on the level of developing mutual interaction should have ample facilities for interaction to take place. Working together requires practice in planning, collecting information, studying problems together, and arriving at conclusions and decisions. The program should give evidence of two-way procedures—a flow of cooperative forces working in both directions, each to the benefit of the other.

The Educational Policies Commission⁴ has classified into six categories practices which illustrate the interactive process:

1. The school learns about the community in order to modify the educational program.
2. The community studies its problems and learns what can be done about them through the schools.
3. School and community act together on school-centered projects.
4. School and community act together on other community projects.
5. The school community enriches the school program.
6. The community school enriches community life.

The Educational Policies Commission has collected a large number of examples of communities in which each of these interactive processes has taken place.⁵ Each of these examples has grown out of some experience peculiar to that community. Each has brought about a better relationship between school and community, enriching the educational program in some manner and raising the level of community living. School-community relations built upon school-community activities such as these provide an important means for lasting satisfaction in enriching American life.

PROCEDURES IN GROUP PLANNING

Achieving the essentials of a sound program of school-community relations is hardly possible without a thorough understanding of group planning procedures. Learning to work together to achieve common ends is an important element of social intelligence. In group planning each individual learns to subordinate his personal interest to group interests, respecting the wishes of the majority in situations requiring common action. Authority must be respected wherever reposed; yet there must be discernment in appraising its wisdom as well as the opinions and decisions of one's peers.

The task of thinking together and arriving at common understandings is not an easy one. Those composing the group bring with them personalities and points of view peculiar to themselves. Some individuals have never learned to work with others; they insist on dominating a situation and refuse to cooperate if they cannot. Others have had much experience in social planning, sensing situations clearly, having mastered the art of communication.

⁴ *Education for All American Children* (National Education Association, 1948), pp. 240-241.

⁵ *Ibid.*

GUIDING PRINCIPLES

The first step in group planning is a realization of the necessity for common understanding of the work to be accomplished, and an indication of a willingness to accept the procedures necessary involved to achieve them. In every group there are group leaders, group observers, resource persons, community delegates, and perhaps others. At the start, it is essential to realize just what contribution each can make. The second step involves learning how best to communicate with one another, either in the larger group or in smaller groups within the larger framework. As the group learns to communicate, problems will be diagnosed and a basis laid for solution. The third step is realized through the growth of each member in (1) learning to work with others, and (2) achieving some result thereby as a satisfying experience. The final step is an achievement of the ends sought in which there is either unanimity of action or an approach to unanimity through majority opinion. Appraisal of the group action and procedures in attaining it should be a part of this latter step.

There are many occasions, both within the school and between the school and the community, wherein group planning can be developed. Children at various ages and levels of growth can be taught to plan. Projects which reach out into the community, such as clean-up campaigns, Red Cross activities, celebration of special days and weeks, safety education, and playground activities can be planned within the school. In teachers' associations, parent-teacher associations, councils, and indeed in every similar group, there are many opportunities. There is no practical limit to the possibilities of cooperative endeavor in group planning. Corey summarizes the guiding principles as follows: (1) the goals must be such as will expedite their attainment; (2) work is undertaken that is relevant to the goals the group wants to achieve; (3) activities in cooperative group work are in sequence; (4) there is a free interplay of minds during all stages of the cooperative activity; (5) a consensus is striven for; (6) cooperative projects tend to grow out of existing group structure; and (7) specific cooperative work projects usually lead to other projects.⁶

GROUP DYNAMICS

Solutions to the problems of school-community relations depend largely upon group action where those associated in a common purpose arrive at a satisfying and meaningful outcome. *Group dynamics* is a term applied to an examination of those forces arising within the group which

⁶ "Group Planning in Education," 1945 Yearbook, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development (National Education Association, 1945), Chap. xix.

must be studied carefully in arriving at common understandings. For example, what are the motivations of the group members? What are their reasons (for or against)? What directions should group action take and why? How do group members get along with one another? Do the group members have difficulty in communicating with one another? Does the group have a clear purpose or goal?

Group leaders who study group dynamics can develop (1) new insights, (2) new techniques, and (3) new terminology. It is along these lines that much experimentation and research are now taking place. Those who are associated in achieving satisfying group action must have an awareness of these developments since every group has its own *dynamics*, its own pattern of forces. Wherever two or more are gathered together to engage in group activity designed to serve a common purpose, the dynamic forces must be recognized.

Group dynamics must be studied in relation to the size of the group. The issues and problems of a small "round table" discussion group may be different from those of a formal discussion attended by a thousand persons. Techniques may be difficult to apply and dynamic forces hard to direct. It is along these lines that group leaders need to give considerable thought and attention.⁷

BUILDING TEAMWORK

Study of successful programs in practice, as well as those procedures which are proving effective, will do much to build teamwork between school and community. Each of the various stages—training of leaders, workshop procedures, problem diagnosis, action skills, and tools for social change—needs to be studied, and application made to the particular project in mind. Lippitt⁸ has made an interesting experimental approach toward new group skills required for harmonious living in modern society. Parents especially need training in these skills. Educating teachers to assume more professional responsibility toward pupils, community, professional organizations, and themselves is an administrative obligation.⁹ If teachers comprehend these functions, they will enhance more

⁷ See David H. Jenkins, "What is Group Dynamics?" *Adult Education Journal* (April 1950); Leland Bradford and John R. P. French, Jr., (eds.), "Dynamics of the Discussion Group," *J. Social Issues*, IV No. 2 (Spring 1948); Leon Festinger, Stanley Schacter, and Kent Bock, *Social Pressures in Informal Groups* (Harper and Brothers, 1950); Ronald Lippitt, *Training in Community Relations*, New York: (Harper and Brothers, 1949); Leland P. Bradford, "Leading the Large Meeting," *Adult Education Bulletin* (Dec. 1949); see also *Adult Education Bulletin*, XIV No. 4 (April 1950).

⁸ Lippitt, *op. cit.*

⁹ Burt Dunmire, "Responsibility Towards Pupils-Community-Self," *Pennsylvania School Journal*, 97 No. 9:345 (May 1949).

desirable school-community relations. Ultimately, the appraisal of the public-school system is made by the public. School-community relations include some responsibility for the appraisal function, as Conant has pointed out.¹⁰ Skilled leadership is essential.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Draw up a statement of policy as a basis for a school-community relations program in which the following appear: (1) legal basis, (2) board-of-education authority, (3) philosophical approach, (4) scope of the program, (5) direction, (6) support.
2. Show that you have an understanding of a "two-way approach" in setting up a program.
3. Illustrate the significance of establishing public confidence in a program of school-community relations.
4. Formulate a program of school-community relations for a given school district in line with the criteria proposed in this chapter.
5. Can you cite illustrations from the literature in which the different approaches to program-making outlined in the chapter have been applied?
6. Using accepted survey techniques, make a complete or partial survey of a school community. Set up a program based upon your findings.
7. Make a list of the problems in your school community which might form the beginnings of a home-school-community program.
8. Make a list of various forms of participation which might be included in the formation of a program. Consider these on successive policy levels. Classify those which might involve, (a) passive, (b) active participation.
9. Check the media available in your school and community, as outlined in the tables on pages 396 and 397, which may be useful in program making in your community. Evaluate them.
10. Illustrate the timing factor by working out a program based on cycles of one, two, three, four, and five years.
11. Set up a budget for a program for a selected school community.

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¹⁰ James B. Conant, "Lay Public-School Approval," *National Educational Association Journal* (March 1950), p. 175.

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CHAPTER, 22

Illustrative Programs and Procedures

"LADIES AND GENTLEMEN," began Mr. Hay, President of the Allison City Parent-Teacher Association, addressing the largest gathering of parents and interested citizens in the history of Allison City, "we are gathered here tonight to receive a report from our council, which has been working diligently for months in developing a school-community relations program for our community. I take great pleasure in presenting Superintendent Evans, who will speak for the council." Mr. Evans arose amidst much applause. He was tall and well dressed, and had a pleasing manner of speaking. His personality radiated a certain confidence. During the past months he had grown greatly in popularity.

"Mr. President, parents, and fellow citizens," he began, "you are the stockholders in a great enterprise—the education of your children. We are your trustees, charged with the success and preservation of that enterprise. It is a task in which we all have a place and a responsibility. Allison City has given evidence that it is willing to assume that responsibility for all its children."

With these opening remarks, Superintendent Evans told of the organization of the council and of the steering committee within the council. He told of the decision of the committee to ask him to act as director of school-community relations until a staff member could be trained to take over these responsibilities. He outlined the plan to publish a series of pamphlets entitled *What You Should Know About Your Schools*. He told of the addresses members of the council had made before the several organizations of the community as well as over the radio. He praised the interest of the parent-teacher association in furthering this project and outlined plans for study groups within the association. He told of the aroused interest of the boys and girls through their representatives in the council. He explained how the council, as well as the teachers, were studying group dynamics so that they could learn better how to work together. He told of the committees of the teachers who were working on revision of the educational program so that the school would become more community centered, teaching those things that would help boys and girls live happier and more useful lives. He told of plans to establish an adult-education program for Allison City, opening up the school buildings several evenings weekly, and providing educational opportunities for Allison City's citizens.

"We are entering upon a great experiment in Allison City," said Superintendent Evans in conclusion. "The success will depend on your support. Naturally, it will take time to develop our plans. We intend to go slowly but we shall always direct our energies toward one goal—a better educational program for you and for your children."



If one should judge by the mass of literature which has appeared within the past decade, especially during the latter half, school-community relations as an educational function has made remarkable progress. What is most interesting is that, instead of conforming to a single pattern, school communities are sensing the significance of their common problems in their own characteristic manner and are endeavoring to arrive at solutions which are peculiar to themselves. Since each school may hold a different philosophy concerning its school-community relations, and since school systems may have varying types of experiences in their relationships with their communities, it is not to be wondered that there are many different approaches to common problems, and varying stages of successful progress in solving them. Programs and procedures vary widely. The significant fact is, however, that the movement is growing rapidly and that there is much progress to report. This chapter will point out

some examples of programs and procedures now in action which seemingly have produced good results.

VARIED NATURE OF SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS PROGRAMS IN ACTION

As we have indicated, there is no one set pattern for a school-community relations program. It may take many forms and be concerned with many projects and activities. Procedures may vary widely. Programs may be concerned with a specific problem or area, such as health information, a school building program, recreation, or the curriculum; or it may be more comprehensive in nature and include most or all of the characteristics of a complete program. Quite often school-community relations programs have much in common with other community programs concerning adult education, community planning, and juvenile delinquency. Emphasis is quite often on personnel associated with the program—the teacher, director, attendance problems, and lay advisory groups. Too frequently, educational interpretation is confused with school publicity although the latter may be essential to it. Since school and community problems vary with the community, the approach to their understanding and solution must be individualized.

Programs may be adapted to the elementary school or the secondary school or both. Here the program will be shaped by the need as well as the leadership. Chamberlin¹ points out that a good program of school-community relations in the secondary schools must maintain contacts with parents and other community organizations and individuals, clear up misunderstandings, become a channel for building good community relationships, and study the needs of pupils and ways and means of meeting them. The welfare of all children, whatever their economic or social status, should be given consideration. For example, Chambers² has called attention, in planning programs, to the needs of rural youth, since they are often overlooked.

Many techniques can be used in bringing about a better understanding of the schools by the community. Stubblefield³ reports successful experimentation with a special tape recording of school activities which

¹ Ralph G. Chamberlin, "What is a Good Program of Public Relations in the Secondary School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 33:201-207 (May 1949).

² M. M. Chambers, "In Behalf of Rural Youth," *Educational Record*, 29:56-63 (Jan. 1948).

³ G. A. Stubblefield, "The Public Relations Program of the El Dorado Schools," *American School Board Journal*, 118:45 (Feb. 1949).

was broadcast to the public. Out of this effort grew a movement to improve the school program and school facilities. Milwaukee is widely known for its effective public-relations program. The entire staff there constitutes the personnel of public relations. In Milwaukee, happy children and satisfied parents are said to be the true measure of school-community relations. Every means is used to bring this about.⁴ Pupils themselves can be more closely integrated in the program. The pupils of the Roosevelt High School, in Chicago, organized a public-relations bureau to plan, organize, publicize, and engage in all special events of the school and community. By these means the public also can develop leadership, dependability, and confidence in school affairs.⁵

REPORTING TO THE COMMUNITY

VARIED METHODS IN USE

People want to know about their schools and the work they are doing. Informing them is an administrative responsibility. There is no one method which can be used generally for accomplishing this effectively. Each community must be studied in order to find the most effective procedures. In Orangeburg, S. C., educators meet lay citizens in group discussion to bring about further understanding of school problems. There is a council on education, a parent-teacher association, a student council, and a daily digest of school news in the local newspaper. Great Neck, N. Y., has discovered that the foundation of school-community relations is in giving large numbers of people opportunities to assist in planning school activities. Atlanta, Ga., enlists school support through a citizens' committee, parent-teacher association leaders, a speakers' bureau, newspapers, and radio. Southbury, Conn., found a district education association effective. It is a citizen-sparked organization with wide representation. A printed weekly newspaper was also effective. Denver, Colo., felt that it had to reach (1) the parents of the children and (2) the voting citizens with no children. Parent-teacher associations proved effective; printed materials and a speakers' bureau were developed with complete information made available. Austin, Texas, used radio broadcasting as one means of educational interpretation. This was highly organized, with school activities and pertinent information interspersed. Milwaukee, Wis.,

⁴ Lowell P. Goodrich, "This is Public Relations as Milwaukee Sees It," *Nation's Schools*, 43:29-30 (April 1949).

⁵ L. S. Hartford, "Public Relations Bureau Serves School-Community," *School Activities*, 19:168-169 (Jan. 1948).

has found lay-group conferences invaluable in effective school-community relations.⁶

In one New Jersey community the superintendent has reported ten effective public-relations devices used for the schools of his community: letter writing to businessmen; character education; a public quiz program; entertainment of mothers; a pamphlet for parents, answering their questions; demonstration of school work and methods; emphasis on pupil interpretation for the home and community; postcards; inviting mothers to the school; and a community bulletin board.⁷

Dramatic episodes and activities constitute a helpful technique in acquainting the community with the school program, bridging the gulf between parents and teachers, and achieving home and school cooperation. Such activities should be built around school needs and problems and geared to a specified purpose.⁸

PICTORIAL AND GRAPHICAL PRESENTATIONS

Numerous examples of bulletins, house organs, brochures, and similar publicity materials useful in school-community relations programs are available for study. These publications are so varied, attractive, and meaningful that they may be said to constitute one of the most significant developments in school-community relations in recent years. It is difficult to cite any particular one or group as outstanding, because most of them include significant school information generally well written and designed for a particular audience. Most of them are attractively illustrated with pictures, charts, and graphs. Each part of the bulletin or brochure, as well as the whole, should be so designed as to *tell its own story*; that story should concern the school, its pupils, and its work.

The Baltimore Bulletin of Education and the brochures of the Pittsburgh Public Schools may be considered representative of this type of material. The beautiful photography, satisfying information, color, and action stimulate anticipation of succeeding issues. An outstanding brochure, entitled *Still Unfinished, Our Educational Obligation to America's Children*, published by the National Education Association in 1948, tells a significant story graphically. This story is one of the adequacy of our school expenditures in the several states and is strikingly illustrated in color. It is a good example of what can be done at the local level.

⁶ See *School Executive*, Vol. 68, No. 9, 59-71 (May 1949) for a more complete analysis of these programs.

⁷ Thomas E. Robinson, "Ten Best Public Relations Devices," *School Executive*, Vol. 68, No. 12, 36-38 (Aug. 1949).

⁸ Lucile Armstrong, "They Talk It Over," *National Education Association Journal*, 39: 177 (March 1950).

SCHOOL PUBLICITY

As an instrument of school-community relations, publicity must not be confused with the broader term "educational interpretation." Where the primary emphasis is publicity, the principles of publicity must be observed, especially if journalism is involved. This means that those engaged in such an undertaking should thoroughly master these principles and apply them with intelligent understanding. Perhaps the best guide in such procedures is Fine's excellent manual.⁹

PLANNING

School authorities cannot leave to chance community understanding of new developments and progress in the schools. Not only should complete information be made available to the public through effective channels but erroneous impressions should be corrected and community pressures analyzed and evaluated. Such programs begin within the schools in acquainting teachers and other employees with aims, practices, and outcomes of the educational program. Means must be developed, visual, auditory, and social, to fulfill this objective. Committees of lay citizens, especially if community leaders can be interested, are effective. Nelson¹⁰ points out some of the essentials (1) leadership, (2) conscientious participation, (3) intelligent planning, (4) democratic procedures, and (5) steady forward progress.

THE PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION

The parent-teacher association is probably the most effective means now available to create and maintain satisfying school-community relations. When parents are brought together under effective leadership they become associated for a common purpose—namely, the welfare of their own children. It is not difficult to comprehend the phenomenal growth of parent-teacher membership within recent years; but it is difficult to understand why school men generally have not recognized its potency and utilized it more effectively for advancing the educational program.

An excellent example of effective school-community relations developed through the parent-teacher association is that of Monessen, Pa. Community spirit could not have been at lower ebb educationally when in the spring of 1948 a parent-teacher association was organized in that community with the amazing enrollment of 760 persons. Building a pro-

⁹ Benjamin Fine, *Educational Publicity* (Harper and Brothers, rev. ed., 1951).

¹⁰ Charles R. Nelson, "Progress Toward the 3 R's," *Nation's Schools*, 42:27-29 (Aug. 1948).

gram of action around school needs, parents and teachers went to work in a friendly spirit of cooperation and good will. As an outcome, people came to the schools for the first time to see education in action, to observe at first hand those needs, and went away determined to do something about them. As an outcome, a program of needed improvements immediately was endorsed and a long-range program of school-building construction voted almost unanimously.¹¹

When dealing with parents individually or in groups, one must remember that they must be educated concerning the schools. Progress may seem at times unnecessarily slow, but parents will respond if they are properly led and taught. Teachers must make parents welcome in the school, and parents must welcome teachers in the home and elsewhere in their social relations. As far as possible, relationships should be positive and constructive. Parents should be told the truth concerning the schools and their children. This means that much time and attention should be given to ways and means of bringing this about. Honest dealings are much more to be desired than uncertainty and evasion.¹²

Ways and means must be developed to make it possible for parents and teachers to get together. No one method or program will fit every situation. Teachers should feel it not only an obligation but an honor to work together with parents in the interests of the children. Similarly, teachers must be taught how to meet parents, to socialize with them, and to cooperate effectively.¹³ A successful parent-teacher association may be characterized in part by its emphasis on professional matters. Anderson¹⁴ describes an incident in which leadership was needed to further a worthwhile project. Such a person was found in a near-by college, and she offered her services. Successful parent-teacher associations are hardly possible without strong leadership and, more especially, willingness on the part of their members to assume added responsibilities.

Ordinarily, parent-teacher associations in high schools are not as effective as those attached to the elementary school, partly because high school pupils do not relish their parents' coming to school and meeting their teachers. This was overcome in one instance when parents, teachers, and pupils came together to discuss their common problems. Objectives were clarified and a new emphasis placed on the purpose and program of the organization. Projects were selected which focused more on pupil welfare, such as achievement awards, scholarships, support of pupil activ-

¹¹ Roderick J. Wiseman, "Monessen's PTA," *The Keystone*, Pittsburgh Steel Co. (Spring 1950).

¹² C. D. Neal, "Should Teachers Lie to Parents?" *Nation's Schools*, 44:32 (Nov. 1949).

¹³ F. E. Gymer, "Teachers Must be Human," *Nation's Schools*, 42:32-33 (Feb. 1949).

¹⁴ Vivene Anderson, "Leadership-Study Incident," *School Executive*, 67:32 (July 1948).

ities, guidance and placement needs, and a series of forums for the discussion of school needs.¹⁵

COMMUNITY-CENTERED EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

One of the significant movements in education is the extension of educational opportunities into new areas through a community-centered educational program. Such a program stresses the mobilization of community resources by the schools to meet problems of group and individual living and learning. It includes use of school facilities for longer periods of the day and for more days during the year. Broader programs of education extend to summer camp and recreation, and to out-of-school youth and adults.

EMPHASIS ON COOPERATION

In order to accomplish these purposes, cooperative means must be developed.¹⁶ Friedman reports a plan for consulting the community on content of social science courses as a means of building better school-community relations.¹⁷ Both parents and pupils were enlisted in the project, with excellent results. The public school as a social institution must so develop its program as to stimulate desirable community living and community life. Spain¹⁸ points out, for example, that in many Kentucky schools, rural as well as urban, pupils and parents work together in constructive activities. To be more effective as instruments for enforcement of democratic living, schools must make a difference. Schenectady¹⁹ reports interesting developments in which teachers, children, nurses, janitors, and parents cooperate on such projects as kindergarten activities, workshops, soil conservation, sewing activities, clean-up, and collection of materials. Better understandings have been brought about through study groups, parent-teacher associations, information materials, community committees on special projects, and working together on planning for school additions. Schenectady recognizes that helping children to be

¹⁵ L. M. Kline, "Different Kind of High School P. T. A.," *American School Board Journal*, 118:37 (April 1949).

¹⁶ "Toward a New Curriculum," *1944 Yearbook*, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (National Education Association, 1944).

¹⁷ Kopple C. Friedman, "Utilizing the Community Curriculum Development," *School Review*, 56:357-360 (June 1948).

¹⁸ Charles R. Spain, "Kentucky Schools Practice Democracy," *School Executive*, 68:54-55 (June 1949).

¹⁹ Lorene Fox and Eunice L. Bishop, "The Community Teaches in Schenectady," *School Executive*, 68:52 (June 1949).

intelligent, well-informed citizens is the joint responsibility of home, school, and community.

MASTER PLANS

Many communities have been experimenting with a master plan for merging school and community. Trained leadership is essential—leaders that understand the principles of school-community relations. Glencoe, Ill., with its twelve-month school and its long experience with lay participation provides many clues to such integration through full-time employment of teachers and a twelve-month educational and recreational program. In other communities, educational programs extend to many aspects of home and family living, community improvement, religious life, trade and industrial welfare, and health and physical education activities.²⁰ Lay advisory committees are playing an increasing part in these developments in providing a democratic means for developing policies and plans, which are more likely to receive community support as they are better understood by the citizens. Such committees provide moral support for the schools, create confidence in their work, and harmonize differences between school and community.²¹

SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

To improve community attitudes concerning education and to create sound public opinion, the following activities may be used: (1) those activities using written materials, such as school publications, (2) those using oral experiences, such as dramatizations, assemblies, forums, or radio, and (3) those designed for some community service, such as ushering, hospitality, clubs, and special school committees. Through these activities public opinion can be sensitized, support solicited, and cooperation obtained. Under competent leadership the student council can be an effective instrumentality in this connection.²²

The integration of school and community can be brought about through other agencies if they are carefully selected and administered. Garstin recommends the use of school press and radio, discussion forums, vocational training, and recreational activities, together with films, as a way of promoting community integration through the school.²³ Kingsport,

²⁰ G. R. Koopman, "Formula for Merging School and Community," *Nation's Schools*, 42:22-24 (Aug. 1948).

²¹ Leslie W. Kindred, "Lay Advisory Commission Puts Into Effect the Partnership Between School and Community," *Nation's Schools*, 43:43-44 (March 1949).

²² Laura M. Shufelt, "Influencing Public Opinion Through School Activities," *Social Education*, 11:265 (Oct. 1947).

²³ L. H. Garstin, "School as an Integrating Agency in Community Life," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, 21:409-416 (March 1948).

Tenn., reports that the keynote to curriculum development is cooperative planning. This was achieved through the preparation of a sound film presented to the patrons of a community. After the film, a mixed panel discussed the needs of the school, and the community proposed plans to revise the curriculum. The film in this instance played a significant role.²⁴

PART-TIME WORK PROGRAMS

Extending the program of the schools into the community in order to encompass community living and assist the pupils to become better adjusted to the kind of living they are likely to engage in eventually has taken many forms. Many of these have been pointed out in earlier chapters. One significant movement which seems to be growing in importance, perhaps not as rapidly as it should, is that of providing part-time work programs as a joint school-community undertaking. Pupils become better acquainted with the industrial and economic life of the community, acquire much knowledge, and attain many skills. Industries and businesses can observe promising young persons who may eventually become a part of their organization. Minneapolis reports a successful work program together with the procedures necessary to its administration.²⁵

IMPROVING SCHOOL FACILITIES THROUGH COMMUNITY PLANNING AND SUPPORT

SCHOOL PLANNING AND COMMUNITY PLANNING

Educational planning involving the school plant and facilities must be undertaken as an essential community project, since it involves not only the children and youth of the community but its adults as well. The school of the future will undoubtedly be a community-centered school, in which all the people of a community may enjoy its advantages and opportunities. Although leadership in regard to educational planning should emerge from the school itself, there should be lay participation throughout the development of the enterprise. Broad vision and harmony with total community design and social living are essential, especially if there is a city planning or other commission engaged in a larger enterprise and developing a master plan. Such community resources as parks, playgrounds, and libraries should be utilized. The school plant should be used as a community resource.

²⁴ Earl A. Arnold, "A Film Serves School and Community," *Educational Screen*, 27:265-266 (June 1949).

²⁵ Margaret E. Andrews, "Minneapolis' Successful Junior-High Work Program," *Clearing House*, 20:106-109 (Oct. 1945).

A scientific approach, such as that embodied in an educational survey, may be necessary to realize these purposes. Expert advice is essential through architects, social agencies, and state officials. Investigation should be made of successful practices where excellent results have been achieved and where peace and harmony seem to prevail as an outgrowth of cooperative community planning. Blackwell, Cooper, and Courter have pointed the way to community planning along these lines.²⁶

PUPIL HELP

Many school buildings have been permitted to become dilapidated and out of repair through neglect and indifference. It is surprising what the pupils themselves can do under vital leadership. The Unity School was a bleak one-room building, drab and dilapidated. On the first day of school the pupils were asked what the school needed. They made notes of its needs and worked noons, after school, and on Saturdays to clean and repair it. They thus learned to work together. Parents became interested and assisted. Out of it grew a new educational system and a new community spirit.²⁷

CAMPAIGNS FOR SCHOOL FUNDS

Campaigns for funds can be conducted not only to bring about the immediate outcome successfully but also to become the means of establishing a satisfying school-community relations program. Akron, Ohio, reports a successful campaign for additional school funds in which sound principles of public relations were utilized.²⁸ These included representative citizens' groups, use of newspapers, screen, and radio, teachers' organizations, conferences, endorsements, campaign literature, advertisements, and school activities. Through this coordination of efforts, good will was garnered for the schools, the school program was publicized and interpreted, lay approval of the school program was expanded, and teachers were brought into closer relationship with the community.

SLOAN FOUNDATION ACTIVITIES

The Alfred P. Sloan Foundation administers a private fund for many philanthropic activities of direct interest to education.²⁹ Perhaps the most

²⁶ Dan H. Cooper (ed.), *Administrative Planning for School Programs and Plants* (University of Chicago Press, 1947).

²⁷ Glenn O. Blough, "Pictures in the Sand," *National Education Association Journal*, 36: 644-645 (Dec. 1947).

²⁸ Otis C. Hatton, "Garnering Good Will Along with School Funds," *Nation's Schools*, 42:23-25 (Sept. 1948).

²⁹ These are illustrated and the projects described in Alfred P. Sloan Foundations Inc. reports, bulletins and other materials (30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y.).

significant of these is "Applied Economics," having as its purpose to raise living standards, particularly in low-income areas, through instruction in the schools and through changes in the school curriculum. In order to achieve this purpose, stress has been laid on care and preservation of foods, proper diet, disease protection, and care and repair of wearing apparel. The fundamental purpose is to teach children, and through them their parents, how to apply freely available skills and knowledges of a practical sort to the conditions of their environment. In this project alone, more than 150 separate publications for school use have been prepared and distributed. These projects have been carried out under the sponsorship of the Universities of Kentucky, Florida, and Vermont.

PROGRAMS AT THE STATE LEVEL

Public-school relations have been advancing rapidly on state levels under the auspices of state educational associations, advisory committees, foundations, and departments of education. In New Jersey the secondary-school-teachers' association has been developing suggestions for the improvement of teacher-community relations.³⁰ In Kentucky, Florida, and Vermont levels of community living have been raised through projects organized under state university auspices.³¹ In Connecticut the people of the state undertook to improve their own schools through a state-wide organization in which local committees played a prominent part.³² California has had considerable success with representative committees of lay citizens as well as programs designed to improve school-community relations and facilities and to settle controversial issues.³³ In many other ways California has made outstanding progress in sensing the need for school-community relations and doing something about them. Recent successes in increased school support have been accomplished through state-wide information as to the work of the schools and need for support, and the organization of representative committees of its citizens. Recently, the California Association of School Administrators has endeavored to ascertain "How may the people of California move forward with determination and courage in meeting their educational problems?" Its 1950 Yearbook is, in reality, a blueprint for the development of a school-community

³⁰ New Jersey Secondary School Teachers Association, "The Teacher's Role in School-Public Relations," *School Life*, 30:21-22 (March 1948).

³¹ Stewart B. Hamblen, "Teaching Them to Live," *National Education Association Journal*, 36:296-298 (April 1947).

³² *New York Times* (Nov. 14, 1945).

³³ Chester W. Harris, "An Important Controversy," *School Review*, 55:576-578 (Dec. 1947).

relations program designed particularly for application at the local level. It is one of the most forward-looking documents which has appeared recently.³⁴

SUCCESSFUL PROGRAMS IN BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY

Publicity has received considerable emphasis in business and industrial public relations. The school leader can learn much from descriptions of practice found in an abundant literature in this area. For example, Baus³⁵ encourages high standards in public-relations activities associated with business and industry, with considerable emphasis on communication, techniques of publicity, propaganda, advertising, and news. The public-relations director should understand the intricacies of lobbying and consumer relations.

Business and industry have found it advisable to extend their public-relations activities beyond the area of publicity and to set up effective programs. The American Public Relations Association invited all types of business organizations to submit "programs in action" in competition, and out of 250 entries submitted, gave 44 awards in 14 classifications. The procedures involved in these programs have been described as "tried and tested tools" which almost anyone can use to "build a stronger, more lasting and beneficial public relations edifice."³⁶

Businessmen are often critical of the work of the public school and especially of its public-relations program. Certain industries have undoubtedly made great progress in this regard with highly paid personnel and often unlimited funds. But it must be remembered that the two situations are not always comparable. Werner points out that school public relations must present the truth as based on research, enlist the cooperation of community leaders, and make use of the attitudes of the school personnel. Greater initiative must be assumed by school personnel, power being gained through intensive activity.³⁷

THE LAY-PROFESSIONAL COUNCIL MOVEMENT

Desirable and satisfying school-community relations can reach their greatest effectiveness only through the cooperative action of both lay and

³⁴ California Association of School Administrators, *The People and the Schools of California* (1950).

³⁵ Herbert A. Baus, *Publicity, How to Plan and Place It* (Harper and Brothers, 1942).

³⁶ Philip Lesly (ed.), *Public Relations in Action* (Ziff Davis Publishing Co., 1947).

³⁷ William G. Werner, "Education's Public Relations," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 29:128-132 (Nov. 1947).

professional personnel. There seems to be a definite return to earlier conceptions of coordination of community functions and activities, as illustrated by the New England town meeting. The movement has been developing rapidly over the past two decades, as numerous accounts in the current literature attest.³⁸

LOCAL LEVEL

Nearly all of the community councils reported have been formed on the local level, usually in order to carry through a local program or activity. Davis reports success in Atlanta, Ga., with several community councils (30 to 60 persons) formed to acquaint patrons with a proposed school reorganization.³⁹ They were initiated by principals and parent-teacher association members and were organized in each community having a high-school center. The report shows that not only were the objectives of school reorganization attained but public interest was sufficiently developed to obtain better facilities and solve problems such as recreation, dental clinics, safety, libraries, and public forums. These councils demonstrate the value of full information and community planning.

Community councils may be organized to carry out a single project or solve a particularly pressing problem. In Kalamazoo, Mich.,⁴⁰ a curriculum council composed of lay and professional groups was formed in order to understand, coordinate, and improve the curriculum for the entire school system. Committees were appointed to develop learning materials and audio-visual aids, to improve home-living, and to develop projects. After World War II the social and vocational rehabilitation of handicapped veterans returning to their homes became a community problem. In Cuyahoga County, Ohio,⁴¹ the public schools united with the local and welfare agencies, medical institutions, and state and federal services in developing a program of health and vocational readjustment. The whole community, including the schools, received a "lift" from these efforts.

In smaller communities, the community council can prove just as effective. Round Valley Union High School⁴² serves a somewhat isolated

³⁸ Kenneth S. Beam, "Coordinating Councils," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, 11:67-72 (Oct. 1937).

³⁹ Roy W. Davis, "Neighborhood Councils Help High Schools Serve as Community Center," *Nation's Schools*, 44:50-51 (Aug. 1949).

⁴⁰ Theral T. Herrick, "Kalamazoo's Curriculum Council," *School Executive*, 68:57-59 (June 1949).

⁴¹ V. J. Sallak, "A Community Approach to the Rehabilitation of the Handicapped," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, 17:342-351 (Feb. 1944).

⁴² Robert L. Sharp, "School Public Relations via a Community Council," *American School Board Journal*, 115:45-56 (Aug. 1947).

mountainous area. Representatives of 16 organizations gathered together to consider their educational problems, such as kindergarten, health program, American Indian problems, cafeterias, and report cards. As a first-year attempt new report cards were developed, community recreation was established, and night classes were organized around community needs.

COMMUNITY COUNCILS OVER THE YEARS

The achievements of community councils are best determined by results over the years. One council reported 17 projects concerned with school and community betterment. Although many of these were simple, the outcomes were far reaching. Many obstacles, such as financing, inadequate leadership, and indifference, have to be overcome. Effective help can come from consultants, mass meetings, experts on community problems, and pertinent literature. Often the council may lack authority and support, but it should continue doggedly until many of its objectives are achieved.⁴³

Community councils can coordinate the community's educational and social services, especially with a view to school-community planning. Olsen has compiled examples of successful coordinating councils in widely separated areas.⁴⁴

STATE LEVEL

Lay and professional groups are learning to work together on the state as well as the local level. One of the most interesting examples comes from New Hampshire, where, in 1946, 12 lay-professional councils were formed on a state-wide basis for the purpose of studying New Hampshire schools and advising on their program. The work was concentrated on the purposes and curriculum of elementary, secondary, adult, higher, and vocational education in the state; on policies of cooperation among school districts, extension of the school program, school finance, and responsibilities of local, state, and federal agencies for the welfare of the educational system of the state. The plan developed in New Hampshire may well form a pattern for other states.⁴⁵ The people of Connecticut decided to study their school needs and seek the best way to improve their schools and colleges. School-community groups composed of parents and representative citizens, together with state officials, teachers, and

⁴³ See *Journal of Educational Sociology*, Vol. 20 (Sept.-May 1946-47), for a series of articles describing such projects.

⁴⁴ E. G. Olsen, "Coordinating Community Educational Services," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 265:130-135 (Sept. 1949).

⁴⁵ *Lay-Professional Council Report to the People of New Hampshire* (New Hampshire Lay-Professional Council on Education, 1947).

school board members were organized in a majority of the 169 towns and cities. Impetus came from the Citizens' Fact-finding Commission on Education created by the state government. Everyone's opinion was sought. The outcome was designed to develop democratic participation in evaluating the schools and public discussion and suggestions concerning public-school needs.⁴⁶

SOCIAL ENGINEERING AND THE IMPROVEMENT OF COMMUNITY LIVING

Throughout this text we have constantly emphasized the need for effective educational leadership and the proper preparation of those persons who are to assume this leadership. Since the public school is a social institution, some writers have conceived the task of its direction as that of social engineering, and the leader a social engineer. Perhaps there is much in common with engineers in the technological world. Perhaps the term itself is not important. Undoubtedly, educational planning as a part of community planning is an engineering problem; the chief question is, however, whether the community will accept the educational leader as a community leader. The Endicott Conference laid particular emphasis on the qualifications for such leadership. Sexson points out the significance of the problem and some suggestions for its solution.⁴⁷

A vivid example of improving community living through creative leadership comes out of Mississippi.⁴⁸ An agricultural teacher with his colleagues surveyed a backward community and saw its many deficiencies. The school responded to these needs and, through day and evening classes, community projects, and intelligent leadership, improved the land, the dairy herds, and fruit and vegetable raising; helped to install cooperatives, a cannery, and a frozen food locker; and developed many other facilities. The school facilities were used for social and educational activities, which in turn enriched the pupils' instructional program. The community became the laboratory, and a richer and more satisfying community living resulted. This example can be duplicated in many other parts of the country.

⁴⁶ *New York Times* (Nov. 14, 1949).

⁴⁷ John A. Sexson, "The School Administrator as a Social Engineer," *School Executive*, 67, No. 10 (June 1948), pp. 21-23. See also "Educational Change and Social Engineering," *Progressive Education*, 26, No. 7 (May 1949).

⁴⁸ Harry B. Williams, "Creating Capacities for Better Living," *School Executive*, 68, No. 8 (April 1949), pp. 11-14.

SUMMARY

By this time there should be little doubt in the reader's mind of the remarkable progress made in school-community relations and in bringing about as an outcome desirable community living. The variety of the projects described in the preceding pages emphasizes not only the progress that has been made in improving school-community relations but also the significance of competent educational leadership essential in achieving worth-while results.

Educational leadership, by whatever term it is called, is vitally concerned with human relations. This is not only a concern of the school with the community but must be manifested within the school itself, among all personnel, including the pupils themselves. Democracy in word and deed must prevail within the school if the school is to teach democracy and exemplify it in the community. Hartford calls desirable human relations the key to survival. Giles declares that the schools must take the lead. Saunders states that no well-defined educational program is possible without school leadership in human relations.⁴⁹ It begins and ends with the democratic principle.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

Since almost fifty references have been cited in the body of the preceding chapter, it is inadvisable to repeat them in the form of a bibliography. In addition to those references cited, there are literally hundreds of others in the current literature relating to this and kindred topics. Consult the available indexes to this body of literature. Current literature contains several compilations of successful practices in school-community relations programs which should be studied in connection with this chapter. Perhaps the most comprehensive compilation of successful practices has been made by Olsen, who has collected numerous successful school-community projects of many kinds in various subject fields and at all academic levels. These accounts are specific descriptions of community study and service programs carried on by schools in their own communities.

The following additional references may be helpful.

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⁴⁹ See series of articles on human relations in the *School Executive*, 68, No. 4 (Dec. 1948), pp. 43-54; also Wilbur A. Yauck, *Improving Human Relations in School Administration*.

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NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. "Community Living and the Elementary School," *Twenty-fourth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals (1945).

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The *School Executive*, the *Nation's Schools*, and the *American School Board Journal* are excellent sources of descriptions of practice.



CHAPTER 23

Appraising the Program

FOR WEEKS the educational survey staff had been studying Allison City and its public schools. Professor Winslow had given much of his personal time to the task because of the interest which had been aroused in the development of a school-community relations program. He was anxious that the community and its problems be thoroughly examined and that the proposals presented by the staff be forward-looking as well as defensible.

Dr. Morrison was in the chair as Professor Winslow and selected members of the survey staff appeared before the school board to make their report. The report had been mimeographed, with many tables, charts, drawings, and several photographs of buildings and classroom situations. Each person present had a copy as Professor Winslow addressed the board. He was a tall man with a slightly graying shock of hair, vigorous and affable. He knew the value of a good story at the appropriate time to introduce the points he was about to make. His keen analysis of Allison City schools was so straightforward that the members of the school board

wondered why they had not known more about them before. Then he proceeded to outline an educational plan for Allison City for the next decade.

"Gentlemen," he said, "our opinion polls indicate that Allison City is ready for the establishment of a true community-centered school. Such a school should provide for little children as young as four years, and perhaps younger. It should provide an adult educational program for any citizen who wants to learn. The schools should be the people's schools, open all the year round, providing kindergartens, summer camps, recreation, evening schools—in fact, every activity of an educational nature designed to provide a happier way of living for Allison City. Teachers will be employed the year round and paid salaries which will enable them to become truly professional leaders in the community. A better coordination of all educational activities in the community will take place under public-school leadership. The costs of such a program will be higher, of course, but far below what Allison City is now paying for its crime, juvenile delinquency, and other disorganizing influences of a modern city. Our survey of this community indicates that the people want such a program and are willing to pay for it."

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The administration of an educational function in public education involves three activities—planning, executing, and appraising. Although careful planning is the first prerequisite to the success of the function, it will not in itself ensure success. The program must be administered properly. As the program proceeds, there should be some evidence that it is accomplishing the objectives previously indicated. This outcome can be realized only through some effective appraisal of the results of the various activities included within the program.

The appraisal activity should be an integral part of a school-community relations program. In planning the program, the educational leader should always look forward to its effective appraisal. Every program needs careful examination and redirection from time to time so that it may continue to accomplish its purposes and keep pace with educational and social change. Those in charge of the program should ascertain which aspects of the program are functioning best and which are failing in their purpose. Nor must it be forgotten that the public is indirectly appraising the program in many ways. On the one hand, there may be enthusiastic public support, such as newspaper commendations or favorable citizen response. Not infrequently appraisals take the form of harsh criticisms or sullen inaction. Again, popular appraisals may be

expressed on unexpected occasions by opposition candidates, unfavorable school election results, or downright indifference. The educational leader cannot ignore the appraisal function in whatever form it is expressed.

FACTORS RELATED TO PROGRAM EFFECTIVENESS

Many of the factors related to program effectiveness which we are about to discuss have been described in previous chapters. They are reviewed briefly here. Others will be presented so that the list may be reasonably complete.

GETTING ALONG WITH ONE ANOTHER

Success in human relations within the school system is basic to success in school-community relations. School personnel should, first of all, learn to get along with one another in a cooperative, friendly, and helpful way. Such a spirit should carry over to relations with the parents and citizens of the community. Attitudes of school personnel toward criticism from parents or citizens is one test of ability to get along. Personal animosities, jealousies, prejudices, and dissatisfactions, however justified, should be eliminated lest they undermine the whole school-community relations program.

QUALITY OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

It has been pointed out that the first responsibility of the educational leader is to develop a sound educational program adapted to the needs, interests, and capacities of all the children and to community living. The curriculum should be constantly improved. There should be opportunity for democratic living within both the school and the community. Above all, the school program should be worthy of wholehearted support, not only by the school staff but by the community as well. Perhaps the most important element in the school-community relations program will be the acceptance of the educational program as a whole. Its strength should be presented clearly and its weaknesses admitted in the light of cooperative action to bring about constant improvement.

THE PUPIL

Every pupil is a contact with the home and the community. Through their community relationships, they are daily reporters operating between the school and parents, relatives, friends, and citizens. Their opinions, remarks, and actions are evidence to many people of the condition of

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the schools. The actions of a dozen school children disregarding the property or rights of others by dropping paper, running over lawns, or disrespectful attitudes are often blamed, many times unjustly, on the teachers and the school.

ACHIEVING THE PROGRAM'S GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

Initially, the school-community relations program should proceed in accordance with its declared philosophy, specific objectives, and selected projects. In appraising the program, one may ask: To what extent are its goals in evidence, or is the whole program hazy in purpose and void of action? Has there been tangible success or visible results upon which all concerned agree?

COOPERATIVE PARTICIPATION

One of the principal criteria of success is the democratic planning and executing on the part of associated personnel. The direction of the enterprise may have proceeded initially along cooperative lines but eventually degenerated into a "one-man" performance. One may inquire whether group participation has been maintained. Have satisfactory community contacts been maintained? Have more and more parents and citizens been brought gradually within the orbit of the school-community enterprise?

ADAPTATION TO LOCAL NEEDS

One of the temptations of educational leadership in setting up school-community relations programs is to look about for successful programs in practice, adapt them intact to a local situation with little regard for their fitness. Since no such program fits different situations exactly, one may ask: Has the local situation been studied with sufficient care and have all facts and problems gathered together before the program has been developed? Have the appropriate philosophy and policy been outlined and is the program developing toward higher levels of attainment?

LAY LEADERSHIP

To what extent has the community leadership been encouraged to participate in the program? Have some community leaders been overlooked because of prejudice, opposition, or fear? Are all social groups represented?

COMMUNITY COOPERATION

One may ask whether such strategic community organizations as the press, churches, service clubs, councils, municipal government, Y.M.C.A.,

and others are supporting the program. The success of any school-community relations program is often dependent on the press. One should look to the board-of-education membership for their support, since they are representatives and may react in one way or another to segments of community interest. Negative attitudes may be expressed by silence, in-direction or open opposition.

PERSONALITY OF THE DIRECTOR

The leader of a school-community relations enterprise should look within himself for some evidence of the success of his enterprise. Has he developed self-control? Has he aroused animosities? Has he exhibited prejudice or bias? Is he socially inclined to all men or just to his friends? Is he generally accepted by all groups? What about his personal appearance, his health, his dress, his cleanliness, his family life, and his associates? Is his private life "above suspicion"?

The careful student of the factors entering into the success of a school-community relations program can find other criteria that could be added to the above list.

SELECTION OF APPRAISAL FACTORS

From the above list of appraisal factors, the educational leader may now wish to select certain factors which he wishes to use. Several suggestions are offered with regard to the appraisal approach.

1. Is the intent to appraise a segment of the program or the whole of it? If the former, what part is to be appraised? And what factors would seem to apply in its appraisal? If it is desirable to appraise the entire program at each stage, at what point is appraisal most effective?

2. A decision should be made regarding the use of subjective or objective factors in appraisal. Universal acclaim may be significant as well as sufficient for the moment. Is it a reliable measure in the long run?

3. Since activities have different values,¹ these values should be determined, and appraisal made in terms of them.

4. Appraisal should be made of the attitudes of individuals and groups, both within and outside the school, at different times and under different circumstances.

5. The total plan and program should come under final scrutiny. Total effects should be appraised in terms of completeness of the educational program in relation to community development.

¹ Delmas F. Miller, *An Appraisal Technique for Programs of Public School Relations* (Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1943).

METHODS OF APPRAISAL

The educational leader has three decisions to make as he plans for the appraisal activity. First, he must decide whether to appraise the complete program or merely a portion or aspect. Secondly, he must decide whether the appraisal methods used are to be subjective—that is, based largely on personal opinion and informal methods—or as objective as possible, using questionnaires, opinionnaires, objective data, and other similar techniques. Thirdly, who shall perform the appraisal? Shall it be a self-evaluation by personnel within the organization or by selected laymen, or is it advisable to obtain from outside the organization personnel reasonably expert in survey and appraisal procedures? Lastly, how shall the appraisal be financed, if the cost is a factor?

SUBJECTIVE METHODS

In anticipating appraisal, the careful administrator will be careful to (1) follow prearranged goals carefully to the point where some outcome is achieved, and (2) gather information as the program develops which will be helpful in the evaluation. Although many appraisals must necessarily be subjective, it is desirable that wherever possible they approach objectivity. The following subjective methods may be found helpful.

Informal Questioning Through Conversation. Remarks passed in conversation are perhaps the most common of all appraisal data. Many people are usually quick in judgment and express their likes and dislikes somewhat spontaneously. Others withhold judgments but sooner or later express their attitudes and opinions. The appraiser can delve deeply into such remarks and seek to interpret these expressions in the light of the true situation.

Letters. Written letters bear a close relationship to oral remarks. Perhaps they may be a little more guarded, since many hesitate to write what they would not hesitate to say; others may prefer to write, lacking the courage to say it. Analysis of written suggestions, criticisms, comments, and observations should be made carefully.

Discussion Groups. Planned discussion groups—study groups, parent-teacher association panels, school planning committees, lay-group meetings, and public meetings called for this purpose—can be arranged by the appraiser. The value of these appraisals will depend somewhat on the nature and attitude of the participants, study of the program, information at hand, and general knowledge of this situation.

Press Reports. Newspaper accounts are a necessary but not always a reliable measure. Note the amount of space, editorial attitudes expressed, and letters to the editor. It may be helpful to keep a clipping book of newspaper items.

Public Interest and Support. The nature of public support of events, activities, and the program itself is an important criterion. This can be checked on the basis of attendance at events, results of elections, willingness of citizens to cooperate, number of complaints and grievances, relations with the school board, teachers and administration, and other indications of public opinion. The sources and validity of all complaints should be checked carefully. Public interest and support can be checked through group sample polls, interviews with selected citizens, public forums, and other methods of determining public reaction to activities or proposals. One important measure is the community interest in such school-community relations activities as American Education Week, school exhibits, school visitations, and parent-teacher association meetings.

Pupil Response. Every pupil, as has been pointed out, is a point of contact with the home and the community. Hence his behavior both in school and in the community reflects an attitude which cannot be overlooked. Questions can be asked of pupils themselves, or of parents through pupils.

Requests for Publications and Services. As the program develops, an increasing number of publications and materials—school reports, brochures, report-card stuffers, motion-picture materials and radio programs—may be prepared and distributed by the school. It is important to study responses to these media. How does the community respond to the addresses and other public appearances of school and community personnel? Are they invited to return? Is there a feeling of satisfaction when such service is rendered?

Group Response. Often a community expresses satisfaction or opposition through such group action as resolutions and public and private discussions. The background and make-up of any group expressing strong criticisms should be thoroughly examined and the validity of its criticisms verified. Effort should be made to offset criticisms and to cement friendships.

OBJECTIVE METHODS

Methods which have been described above, although reasonably effective, are largely subjective. The director of the program may desire to take advantage of more objective procedures in so far as they are applicable. Guesswork should be eliminated and opinion, wherever manifested,

determined as reliably as possible. The director should know all available instruments of objective appraisal and their validity and reliability. In addition he should understand techniques for constructing and applying instruments of evaluation and analyzing the data which they produce.

Preliminary Procedure. Before attempting the use of such objective procedures as are available, the appraiser should examine the following suggestions:

1. Review the purposes of the program and the immediate and/or ultimate goals to be accomplished. (It is assumed that these have been carefully planned in some sequence of accomplishment.)
2. Decide what program emphasis—e.g., information gained, understandings reached, attitudes, skills, and appreciations developed—is to be studied.
3. Decide what stage of the program is to be appraised—e.g., the end of a year, completion of a cycle, or some immediate or ultimate goal or goals.
4. Assemble all data which will assist in appraisal. Many of these data should be collected as the program develops. A considerable portion will be made available by the appraisal instruments selected.
5. Determination to redefine the philosophy, policy and program in accordance with the findings and interpretations of the appraisal. It should be pointed out that the appraisal function may be not necessarily a single action but rather a series of actions taking place periodically as the needs require. It should answer the questions "How effective are we?" and "How can we become more effective?"

Check Lists. Perhaps the simplest effective approach to objective appraisal of a school-community relations program is the use of the check list. A comprehensive series of relevant and penetrating questions can be based on the objectives of the program or on any phase of it. Questions can be phrased in such a form that the respondent will place some *value* on the specific item to be appraised. These can be answered by a simple "yes" or "no" or may require some gradation of value, such as "little," "much," or "none"; or "excellent," "good," "fair," or "poor." Care should be taken that the question is worded so as to require reasoned judgment. It is assumed that the respondent is competent to form the judgment and will reply willingly without bias or prejudice. Respondents may be parents, nonparents, any group of citizens, pupils, or teachers, depending upon the purpose of the appraisal answer desired.

Care should be taken to arrange the questions in the check list in a sequential manner designed to measure some particular segment of the program in terms of specific outcomes—attitudes, procedures, results. The end result should produce data which can be used in a constructive manner to revise or reconstruct the program or any part of it.

Opinion Polls. In expressing judgments of satisfaction or dissatisfaction in general terms, people often depend upon hunches, single experiences, hearsay, or personal likes and dislikes. Such judgments may be difficult to deal with, particularly if expressed by those with considerable influence. At the same time, it must be recalled that it is natural for people to make judgments, however faulty the basis for so doing. The problem is to develop a more objective discriminative approach.

One of the best approaches to the development and use of opinion polls in education has been made by Hand.² He has pointed out that parental satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the schools is expressed in specifics and should be studied in that manner. For example, parents are concerned with teacher treatment of children, discipline, pupil-pupil relations, help with school work, help with personal problems, value of homework, school marks, adequacy of the schools' offerings, pupil activities, financial demands, health conditions, and things liked or disliked about the school.

The various groups which should be polled for opinions of satisfaction or dissatisfaction include parents, pupils, teachers, key citizens, other school officials, and individuals or groups whose interests may be specific. The respondent must understand the purpose of the poll and be interested in responding and competent to respond. To be useful, the replies should be complete, unbiased, and to the point.

The Illinois Inventory of parent opinion is an excellent example of polling.³ Facts concerning the status and occupation of respondent are indicated. The responses called for have as many as five degrees of value. Space is allowed for comments. The questions are arranged sequentially and designed to secure discriminating opinions. They are geared to the level of understanding of the respondent and request information or judgment based on information within his knowledge.

Public opinion on school issues can be ascertained by applying the scientific principles commonly employed in public opinion surveys, such as the Gallup Polls. Hedlund has developed a method by which, through careful sampling and use of pupils, reliable responses can be obtained.⁴

As the opinionnaire or check list is being prepared, plans should be developed for the compilation, analysis, and interpretation of the data. These include tables, statistical measures, charts and graphs, and the use of comparative data and methods. For example, replies on the same question from parents may be compared with those from teachers or

² Harold C. Hand, *What People Think About Their Schools* (World Book Co., 1948).

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 153 ff.

⁴ Paul A. Hedlund, "Measuring Public Opinion on School Issues," *American School Board Journal*, 116:29-31, 86 (April 1948).

pupils. Great care should be taken in interpreting the replies so that the approach is sound and the conclusions reliable.

Opinion polls have many advantages. They serve as a direct channel of communication with those whose opinion is sought. There is a sound and healthful feeling of cooperation in the enterprise. They offer a means for dissatisfied persons to express themselves. They can obtain a cross section of response, if the sample is properly selected. The ideas and attitudes of many persons often suggest valuable plans of action. They reveal what the public knows and should know about the schools.

Rating Scales. Rating scales are generally constructed along the lines of the check list indicated above but include greater emphasis on obtaining some consensus of values in regard to specific activities.

Seyler has developed a rating scale for school-home relationships to be used in the elementary school.⁵ Provision is made for checking certain statements which most nearly describe the school's practice and applying to them graded values.

Michael⁶ was interested in determining the school practices which are most valuable in promoting good public relations. By using a five-point scale, he found the most valuable practices to be conferences with parents, parents' visits to schools, faculty participation in community affairs, home visitation by teachers, school plays, special-day programs, parent-visitation day, school exhibits, activities, and promotion exercises. We are pointing out here the means used. Michael's findings would not necessarily apply in all cases.

Program Evaluation. Perhaps the most scientific as well as comprehensive procedure in evaluating school-community relations has been developed by Miller.⁷ Proceeding on the assumption that all programs bear a definite relation to their motivating philosophy, he constructed, assembled, and classified all activities which have any bearing upon school-community relations. To each of these he assigned standard point values in accordance with the basic philosophy held. Best principles and practices in regard to each activity were then developed. In the light of the appropriate philosophy selection and the best practice, the evaluator proceeds to determine the *relative* value that should be assigned to each activity in terms of the *standard* value. Miller found that the following activities ranked highest in value: reception of visitors at school, visitation of pupils' homes, personal letters to parents, activities of the school

⁵ Seyler, Louise A., *A Rating Scale for School-Home Relationships* (Los Angeles Board of Education, 1948).

⁶ "Public Relations for America's Schools," *Twenty-eighth Yearbook*, American Association of School Administrators (National Education Association, 1950), p. 271.

⁷ Delmas F. Miller, *op. cit.*

health staff, parent-teacher associations, mothers' clubs, guidance councils, forums on educational problems, addresses on educational and the school's activities by school administrators, and news releases. Here again it should be emphasized that these activities may not necessarily rank high in value in all school systems. Miller's technique is an attempt to evaluate the *program as a whole* in terms of the basic philosophy governing that program.⁸

Since there are many school systems whose organization does not extend beyond the elementary grades, it is obvious that a comprehensive rating scale including all activities for both elementary and secondary schools need not necessarily apply. Recognizing this need, Jones⁹ classified all types of contacts and activities which in any manner pertained to school-community relations for the elementary schools. The extent of use of each of these was determined, and standard values were assigned to each activity. A rating scale could then be constructed by means of which the evaluator could determine relative values of activities, and consequently the program as a whole. The following are considered of great value in the school-community relations program for the elementary schools: individual pupil progress, reports to parents, parent-teacher conferences, organized parent-teacher cooperation, home visitations, adult education, local publications, school journeys by pupils, visual aids extending into the community, addresses by school personnel, open house, staff participation in community activities for community betterment, and youth-serving organizations in the community. A significant finding by Jones is that high correlation exists between appraised value of an activity of *great value* and the extent to which it is used in the program. This would seem to emphasize an important conclusion—namely, that each community should make every effort to discover those activities which have the *greatest value to it* in bringing about a cooperative relationship and should emphasize that effectiveness through appropriate use.

These studies point to the need for further study and standardization of program evaluation. Undoubtedly, a simplified yet comprehensive objective appraisal form is needed. The solution is difficult because of conflicting philosophies, differences in communities, varying levels of community understanding, lack of complete agreement as to standardized values, varying nature and use of the several activities, and individual differences among people. Perhaps the answer lies not in too great em-

⁸ A refinement of the rating scale proposed by Miller is now being developed by J. C. Keifer at the University of Pittsburgh. He is checking standard values assigned and reconstructing the instrument for general school use.

⁹ Mildred B. Jones, *A Survey of the Extent of Use and an Appraisal Technique for Public Elementary School-Community Contactual Relationships* (Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1950).

phasis on standardization but in a closer study of each community to see what is really most effective to accomplish the purposes in mind.

THE ROPER SURVEY AND "LIFE" TEST

When citizens take a greater interest in their own schools and take steps to appraise them on their own initiative, facts are revealed which have a deep significance for education. Such a national-wide survey was made upon request of *Life* magazine¹⁰ during 1949. Using standard opinion poll techniques and asking twenty questions designed to measure public attitudes in twenty aspects of the schools, Roper found a wide range of answers, indicating a considerable lack of agreement. "The schools, according to them, are very good or very bad; they're getting better or they're getting worse; they're too progressive or they're too traditional; they're spending too much or they're spending too little. Nothing is exactly right." In spite of this conclusion the Roper report points out that people think that the schools are good but nowhere good enough. The survey showed that people are thinking about their schools and feel that the schools are responsible for most of the upbringing of their children.

In order to have some reliable method of distinguishing good schools from bad, *Life* magazine has published a list of 63 questions, to be answered by a simple "Yes" or "No," which can be asked by any layman of any public-school principal. They require no special knowledge or judgment on the part of the questioner. The test concentrates on the tangible qualities that make a school good. Standards are indicated for elementary and high schools. The value of the use of such a test by laymen lies in his own interest in learning more about his schools and in stimulating their improvement.

CONCLUSION

Since the maxim "nothing succeeds like success" has been the guide of many men in appraising their actions, the temptation is always to view that success as *the individual himself sees it*. We are accustomed to speak of an activity in general terms—as "good," "well done," "fine," "satisfactory," or "poor," "unsatisfactory," "not worth much." We weigh these subjective appraisals with previously formed attitudes, expecting others to appraise likewise, especially when we may be in a position to insist. Unfortunately bias, prejudice, conflicting personalities, and emotional considerations influence judgments. For example, we are opposed to

¹⁰ *Life* (Oct. 16, 1950).

parent-teacher associations because we do not like the "Madam President," or some of the things the leadership in power proposes to do. Where human relations are concerned, it is difficult not to allow personal considerations to enter into one's judgments.

The approach to appraisal should be as objective as possible. The appraiser, having first rid himself of all bias, proceeds to his task with an objective approach and the selection of the appropriate means.

As the evaluation proceeds, several points should be re-emphasized: (1) Are the basic philosophy and purposes being kept constantly in mind? (2) Just what is being evaluated, in what terms, and according to what values? (3) Has the program matured to a point where sound conclusions can be drawn? (4) What aspects of the program are of great value, what of little or no value? (5) How can revision take place in the light of known facts? (6) How can evaluation be made a cooperative process? (7) Of what values are subjective methods of appraisal and when, if at all, should they be used? (8) Is evaluation being made at every stage of progress? (9) Since desirable changes in human behavior are the end of the program, how can these best be determined? What desirable changes do we want to bring about? (10) Are the data upon which evaluation can be made being collected and filed systematically?

The final test of the appraisal function is success of the enterprise determined cooperatively, viewed in perspective, and related definitely to the philosophy and purposes of the educational function as a whole.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Show how the basic philosophy of a school-community relations program must be considered in appraising it.
2. Point out several distinctions between subjective and objective approaches to appraisal.
3. Check the factors presented as related to program effectiveness. Can you suggest others? Rank them in importance.
4. Point out by actual illustration how the appraisal of a school-community relations program should be closely adapted to the particular community to be appraised.
5. Rank in order of effectiveness *five* subjective measures of appraisal.
6. What data should be constantly available to assist in evaluation?
7. Construct a rating scale which might be used to appraise a segment of a school-community relations program.

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CHAPTER 24

The Community School

IT WAS THE END OF MAY and the school term would soon be over. The principal topic of conversation at the dinner table that evening was the community-centered school which was being established in Allison City. Mary Brown remembered that October night at the parent-teacher association when the matter was first presented. How happy she was that so much had been accomplished during the year, and that she had a small part in it! She was especially happy that John had stopped grumbling about high taxes and was now really enthusiastic about the new educational program. Susan would be away at college next year; John Junior would be in high school, and Rose Marie in second grade. Most of all, Mary Brown wanted their children to grow up to be good, honest, and useful citizens.

The purpose of this chapter is to review and restate those fundamentals upon which desirable community living is based and upon which a sound

educational program designed to contribute most effectively to this end can be constructed. Education is society's principal institution to improve community living; its success depends largely on an understanding of its purposes and the conditions which favor or hinder its functioning. Since this requires the cooperative endeavor of all members of a community, satisfying school-community relations become the principal means to achieve this purpose. Because communities differ in many ways, the problem is to select and apply those principles and practices of school-community relations which will contribute most effectively.

The community school has come to be recognized as the most satisfying form of community education to transmit and improve our cultural heritage and to aid in achieving the "good life" for every individual. Perhaps the term "community education" should supplant "community school" as more expressive of these purposes. This chapter will attempt to characterize the community school. It will point out ways and means of achieving it, earmarks of its progress, and some means for its evaluation.

The community school is more than a relationship; it is, or should gradually become, an integral part of community living. Its influence should reach out in every direction; it should comprehend all individuals, all groups, all conditions, all resources, all mores, all hopes and aspirations. It has no beginning and no end; rather its concept is one of appropriate and continuous education of all. School-community relations, in the finest sense and by whatever more appropriate term it may be called, is fully contained within both the scope and meaning of the community school, by which we mean community education for desirable community living.

COMMUNITY LIVING

MAN AS AN INDIVIDUAL AND A SOCIAL BEING

Man has two natures: on the one hand, he is an individual; on the other, he is a social being. As an individual, he is a human being with an emerging personality, and he behaves toward others as this personality expresses itself. As an individual he has an original nature consisting of basic elemental drives, sensibility to internal and external stimuli, and ability to adapt to his environment. Democracy as a way of living probably rests most securely on the individual nature of man and his right to expression and development. There is nothing more precious than human life, and nothing more vicious than its destruction or frustration. The Constitution of the United States is built upon the rights of the indi-

vidual. The greatest social progress has been made where these rights have been preserved. The public school itself is predicated on the nurture of human personality.

And yet, the achievement of these purposes is possible only through man as a social being. Almost from birth, each individual begins to influence the behavior of those about him. And he, in turn, is influenced by people and things of his environment. The individual takes on more and more the heritage and characteristics of his group—its attitudes, taboos, religion, occupations, and customs. Within each group there is a form of social organization which has become increasingly complex. Cultural change is inevitable. Its positive effectiveness depends largely on social and individual reaction.

COMMUNITY LIVING

Since man is by nature a social being, he has learned through the years that his personality as well as his group activities can best be developed through community living. The history of man is one of living together in some form—as a family, tribe, clan, village, town, or city. Protection in some form looms large as a factor in his social attraction and cleavage. Ties of family, mores, religion, and occupation have served to retain these associations, bringing about distinguishing characteristics which remain and which must be understood and reckoned with by the educator.

THE COMMUNITY

Since community living is characteristic in America, and since all men may be said to live in some form of community, it is essential that we review its nature and characteristics. An understanding of the community may be approached for two points of view: (1) its structural nature, and (2) its functional nature. The structure of a community may be described in terms of its geographical location, its legal boundaries, its occupations, service institutions, historical past, face-to-face contacts, centers of interest, and form of government. Here are recognized certain degrees of interdependence, certain primary and supporting institutions, such as churches and schools, and a certain political autonomy.

The structural description does not, however, convey the interactive nature of community living. This can best be explained functionally—that is, through the interactions and associations of individuals and groups as they live together. Human associations may take such forms as the family, clusters of families in neighborhoods, and established institutions, such as churches, trade unions, political groups, social agencies, and per-

haps gangs and rackets. As we have pointed out, community interaction is best expressed through its functional groups. The status and behavior of the individual is best indicated through his associations. The level of community living may best be determined through the nature, quality, and influence of its functional living. This is well illustrated in those communities of the southern states in which applied economics for better living have raised remarkably the level and tone of community living.¹

CLASSIFICATION OF COMMUNITIES

Several approaches may be used in any attempt to classify communities. Size is the most widely used classification. Within this classification are seven basic types: rural, hamlet, village, town, small city, middle city, and metropolis (including great metropolis). A second classification is that of function—that is, the principal characteristic, usually occupational, such as agriculture, mining, textiles. A third classification may grow out of what Cook² indicates as the “intimacy of social life.” Within these classifications, the educational leader may find many variations in practice as he studies his community in order to develop his educational program. In addition, he will want to note any peculiar characteristics which may be related to its social lag, its changing nature, class differences, individual or group behavior, locus of authority, mobility, conflicts of ideals, and unusual behavior expressed in any manner. Any and all of these may affect the nature and influence of the community school and its educational program.

APPROACH TO COMMUNITY IMPROVEMENT

There are three important elements in the composition of any community. First, there are its physical or natural resources. Secondly, there are its human resources, its people. Thirdly, there are those man-made resources known as social institutions, generally designed to improve living. The improvement of the quality of living in any community through education depends upon the extent to which one is able to improve these resources and relate them to the more desirable, democratic way of life.³ In no sense, however, should this approach be viewed narrowly in terms of each individual community. There is always the wider

¹ Consult leaflets published by *Applied Economics*, 280 Madison Avenue, New York.

² Compare Lloyd Allen Cook and Elaine Forsyth Cook, *A Sociological Approach to Education* (McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1950), Chap. III.

³ Consult *Educational Leaders—Their Function and Preparation*, A Report of the Second Work Conference of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (1945), Chap. III.

view which includes the ever larger community and its resources, extending eventually to international good will and cooperation.

EDUCATION ADAPTED TO THE IMPROVEMENT OF COMMUNITY LIVING

Education can improve community living. In fact, it has been, over the years, the principal institution for this purpose. As society increases in complexity, the role of education becomes more and more important. Today the role of education is critical and the responsibilities of educational leadership greater than ever before. Education will, of necessity, need to vary its methods to fit each community situation, but it will function best when its goals are geared to certain common purposes inherent in democratic living.

These goals have been stated earlier in this text and may be found in many other writings on the subject. It may be well to keep in mind, in addition, the following goals pointed out by the President's Commission on Higher Education: (1) education for a full realization of democracy in every phase of living; (2) education directly and explicitly for international understanding and cooperation; (3) education for the application of creative imagination and trained intelligence to the solution of social problems and to the administration of public affairs.⁴

Education has as its task not only the transmission of the cultural heritage but also its improvement and its adaptation to social change. The benefits of education must be available to all persons in the community who can in any way profit by them. Everyone in a community, regardless of age, culture, sex, race, occupation, or residence, should enjoy the opportunities which education has to offer in order to improve himself as an individual and enable him to become a more useful contributor to our way of democratic living.

Although education has specific responsibilities and goals, it must comprehend all other institutions of the community whose ends are in harmony with these great ideals. For example, although community planning may be a municipal undertaking, education has an important place in it. Education has a vital interest in the services performed by social agencies especially where childhood and youth are concerned. Educational leadership must be closely related to all community leadership whose ends and procedures are for the uplift of community living. Edu-

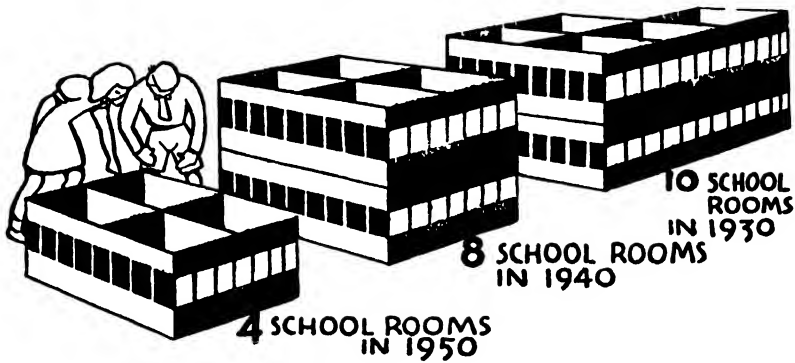
⁴ "Higher Education for American Democracy," *A Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education* (Government Printing Office, 1947), Vol. I, Chap. I.

cation must find the individual boy or girl, youth or adult, study his needs, interests, and abilities, and as far as possible provide for them.⁵

THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL

The *community school* is the logical answer to community challenges and educational responsibilities directed toward social betterment. Perhaps the term itself is not sufficiently expressive; perhaps we should use the term *community education*. The community school does not mean a new institution, since education in some form is already established;

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THE RISING COST OF SCHOOL CONSTRUCTION

rather the community school is one that attempts to serve a community educationally in developing a program adapted to its people and their problems, and designed to raise the cultural and social level in harmony with our democratic way of living. It is a full-time institution, directed by an educational leadership of a high order, serviced by a professional staff thoroughly educated in its concepts and possibilities, and reaching out into every facet of community living enhanced by its services. It holds that the welfare of children and their families is a major concern and that ensuring that welfare is the task of all concerned. There is no end to school and no beginning to community living. They are closely integrated in meeting the common needs of all. Learning and living meet on com-

⁵ The reader should be familiar with the numerous experiments described in the literature in which attempts are made to reach the individual. Examples: *Children in the Community*, The St. Paul Experiment in Child Welfare, Publication 517, Federal Security Agency (1946); and M. Lloyd Warner, Rober. J. Havighurst and Martin B. Loeb, *Who Shall Be Educated* (The Challenge of Unequal Opportunities) (Harper and Brothers, 1944).

mon grounds. So much now for a general statement of the community school. Its specific purposes should be outlined so that some measure may be developed for its ultimate appraisal. The following are some of its characteristics:

1. The community school considers education as an institution for improving social living, changing the behavior of children, youth, and adults. It contemplates the needs of all its citizens and regards education as a lifelong process in order to achieve these purposes.

2. The community school operates in a complete community setting, in which not only is the social heritage examined and transmitted but the community and its problems are studied with a view to their solution.

3. The community school provides a wide range of experiences associated with community living and designed for lifelong benefits. It utilizes all the resources of the community, natural, human, and man-made, and develops them into an educational program for better community living. This educational program is sufficiently comprehensive to embrace the needs, interests, and capacities of each child and all the children, providing as far as possible for their full development.

4. The community school recognizes the significance of social change. Accordingly, its educational program and facilities are sufficiently dynamic to meet emerging community needs.

5. The educational program of the community school is flexible and is consistent with well-known principles of learning and growth, with activities reaching out into all aspects of community living. Provision is made for its continuous study and revision.

6. The community school shares with all the citizens of the community full responsibility for the development of the educational program and facilities and the solution of its problems. Its control is vested in its citizens through their representatives, subject to legal controls and mandates.

7. The community school recognizes the importance of enlightened and competent educational leadership. It realizes the need for a well-prepared, full-time, and adequately paid professional staff to achieve its objectives, and it develops personnel policies consistent therewith. It views the teacher as a professional director of the learning process and recognizes the necessity for a wide variety of learning experiences to achieve its purposes. To this end distinctive types of teaching materials may need to be developed.

8. The community school serves as a community center for all citizens of the community and actively cooperates with all groups interested in the well-being of its childhood and youth.

9. The community school provides for effective pupil personnel services and encourages pupils to share the responsibilities of studying and evaluating school activities.

10. The buildings, site, and equipment of the community school are so planned and used as to house the educational program outlined above, and adapted to the learning experiences of all who use it.

11. The community school is adequately supported by a school budget

cooperatively determined and sufficient to maintain the educational program and its services. Such expenditures are recognized as an investment in better community living rather than as an expense to its citizens.

12. The community school is constantly evaluated in terms of the distinctive objectives and its effect on the quality of living of the pupils as well as all persons in the community.⁶

ACHIEVING THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL

EDUCATIONAL LAG

A sober appraisal of education in each community reveals the great distance which separates what we already know concerning good schools and desirable educational procedures and what is observable in actual practice. This distance has been termed *educational lag*. The great range in the nature of the educational programs to be found in all communities and in their adaptability to social living in that community is a phenomenon of great significance in American education.

Achieving a sound and defensible educational program through the community school, as outlined, begins with a full and sincere appreciation of the prevailing educational program in each community. Throughout this text various suggestions have been made with reference to studying each school system and understanding and appraising its present program and deficiencies. There must be an understanding of best educational practice and of the ideals toward which sympathetic educational leadership will strive. The school program must reach out into the community, serving more youth, more people, serving them better. Rigorous examination should be made at every turn, the community analyzed, its institutions and its leaders studied, its needs determined, and a cooperative plan developed for achievement.

Pierce has pointed out an excellent approach to a study of community characteristics which bear a definite relationship to the school's adaptability.⁷ These include (1) a study of a community's expression of good will toward education, which may condition any approach toward improvement, and (2) improving the quality of education through an application of selected measures.

⁶ Compare these characteristics with those outlined in *Educational Leaders, Their Function and Preparation*, Report of the Second Work Conference of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (1948), Chap. III; Cook and Cook, *A Sociological Approach to Education*, Chap. XII; Elsie R. Clapp, *Community Schools in Action*; N. L. Engelhardt and N. L. Engelhardt, Jr., *Planning the Community School*; Samuel Everett (ed.), *The Community School*; and others.

⁷ Truman Mitchell Pierce, *Controllable Community Characteristics Related to the Quality of Education* (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947). See also Robert S. Fisk, *Public Understanding of What Good Schools Can Do* (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944).

THE ROLE OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

The achievement of the community school begins and ends with efficient democratic leadership directed constantly toward the improvement of the school in the community it serves. Such a leader identifies himself with the people of his community and their problems, and invites their confidence in his leadership. He gradually develops a working structure in order to develop an educational program, and he invites existing groups into achieving a common purpose. He stimulates public understanding of the schools as they are and acquaints his community with what good schools can do. He evolves group planning both in his schools and in the community so that good schools can be achieved. He studies the available resources, and he plans for their utilization in a desirable educational program.

Throughout he maintains a clear definition of the task at hand and the goals to be achieved, proceeding step by step as all are able to follow in the achievement of the enterprise. From time to time he will pause in his efforts, appraise cooperatively the progress made, and revamp the goals and the program thus far attained.

THE OUTCOME

If the good life is to prevail for all men, it must have meaning in each community in terms of desirable living for all its citizens. Whatever is desirable in bringing about human happiness ought to be the birthright of all, without regard to race, creed, social or economic status, or any other factor. Variations in community living are clearly apparent as one goes from community to community, or from section to section of our larger communities, especially the great cities.

The cooperative spirit characteristic of pioneer communities, and even of our own age in times of emergency or calamity, must have a rebirth in all communities. Men must learn to work together and live together. Trends toward divisions through class, religion, or economic level should be arrested through a study of common problems and through good will toward all men.

There are many evidences of the good life which can be applied in studying desirable community living. A review of some of these may be of interest. (1) *Healthful living*. To what extent has the community made available to all its citizens modern health services, sanitation, sewage disposal, control of social diseases, hospitals and clinics, pure food, clean air to breathe, and safety provisions? (2) *A modern educational program*. Is the educational program adapted to the interests, needs, and abilities

of all citizens, including adults? To what extent are kindergartens provided, illiteracy reduced, libraries available, and community cultural activities encouraged? (3) *Recreational and social living*. Are there playgrounds, parks, indoor recreational and social facilities, forums, public meeting places, and some community activities where every citizen can have some part and meet on a common ground? (4) *Personal living*. Opportunity for everyone to exercise his rights as a citizen, to live his own life, own a home, travel, earn enough to feed and clothe himself and his family decently, and enjoy a satisfying leisure. Satisfying personal living is hardly complete without satisfying spiritual living, in whatever form one wishes to find it. Desirable community living ought to make this possible without fear of clergy, public opinion, or social pressure.

These goals are illustrative of desirable community living. Although it is obvious that communities will differ in a marked degree in regard to them, they may serve to establish a frame of reference for each community. It follows, then, that, after study of the community, problems indicating the greatest need should be selected and a program undertaken leading to their solution. By following such a pattern through cooperative action, it is possible eventually to bring about a more wholesome community environment.

Since democracy is a way of living, perhaps we should add that full realization of the ideals indicated above may never be achieved. Democracy is a process, and education is a means to an end. The joy of living the good life is probably best realized through the process rather than through its ultimate achievement.

DISTINCTIVE ROLE OF SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Since the community school represents the educational program most promising in terms of bringing about desirable community living, let us now return to the role of school-community relations in its achievement. This text has pointed out the fundamentals of school-community relations and has examined the agents and agencies for accomplishment within the school and the community. All of these are not ends in themselves but serve as useful means to the achievement of a better educational program in each community. After careful study, determination should be made of the scope and function of each. Each offers its peculiar contribution to the development and administration of the larger program. Finally, school-community relations as an administrative function should be harmonized with other educational functions in proper balance—all under the direction of competent educational leadership.

CHALLENGING FRONTIERS

One would fondly hope that children of pioneers have inherited at least a portion of the indomitable spirit of those who made a free country for them to live in and enjoy. Accession to the blessings of a goodly heritage, among which is education, suggests that a certain spirit of co-operative endeavor should motivate the American people and its educational leadership in its preservation and improvement. If the public school is to fulfill its rightful role in each community for the preservation of democracy, its establishment in each community as an integral part of community living and as a primary means for its development is obvious. Many aspects of this relationship are so novel that they offer challenging frontiers for study and development. Some of these will be pointed out.

There is apparent a shifting in the legal base for education among the community, the state, and now the federal government. At what point, if at all, should it be crystallized? There is a movement toward larger school districts, embracing more comprehensive educational services and shifting the boundaries of many communities. What are the limits of desirable school districting and to what extent are these limits out of harmony with the fundamental principles of the community school? Effective educational leadership is absolutely necessary to desirable school-community relations. What is an effective educational leader and how can he be developed? What constitutes effective working together of the people of a community so that better educational services can be attained? What has group dynamics to offer as a means to this end?

Wherever humans act and react upon and with each other, questions of ethics arise. Codes of ethics have been adopted by all professions not only to establish guiding principles and practices which are beneficial in the relationships growing out of the administration of the enterprise but also to condemn those practices found to be detrimental to the well-being of its members and society in general. What ethical standards should be evolved to determine desirable school-community relationships? To what extent is it necessary to raise the whole moral tone in any community in order to achieve the community school and raise the level of social living?

Each school community should become a great laboratory for the improvement of social living. How can this be done effectively? How can we utilize more effectively what we already know in bringing about better schools? Clean, wholesome boys and girls are a community's best advertisement. The school community as a laboratory enterprise should enlist

their assistance and place upon them proper responsibilities. It will be theirs to take care of some day. They should have a part and a pride in whatever is done for their betterment.

Finally, what are the most effective means to appraise the school-community relations function? What are the most significant instruments which can be used, and how can they best be applied? Is the "feel" of a program the best indication of its success, or do we need something more scientific, more accurate? To what extent are human factors measurable, and how accurate are the indications? There are abundant opportunities for research in the field of school-community relations. Many of these have been pointed out above; some of the areas may be summarized as follows: (1) historical development of movement within the public schools, such as athletics and extracurricular activities, which have relations with the community in any form; (2) the nature of public opinion and its effects upon the public-school enterprise; (3) the community and the curriculum; (4) incorporation of the programs of interest and pressure groups in the school program; (5) media available within the school for school-community relations purposes; (6) agencies and institutions within the community for school-community relations purposes; (7) organized parent-teacher cooperation; (8) state-wide agencies and activities in connection with school-community relations; (9) activities of the federal government and its agencies in connection with school-community relations; (10) various philosophical approaches; (11) the effects of various types of school organization; (12) the effects of various types of policies; (13) leadership; (14) the function of personnel groups both within and without the school; (15) a comprehensive scientific rating device for the evaluation of programs as a whole.

As a relative newcomer to the general field of school administration, school-community relations has not yet developed an adequate body of scientific data. The social sciences have contributed much. More can be expected from scientific studies in education. Competent educational leadership will sense opportunities for the improvement of the educational program and its adaptation to community living through the knowledge and utilization of its principles and practices.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Show several points of view as to the meaning of the "good life" by examining selected references.
2. Show by examples various levels of community living (a) within the same community, (b) in separate communities. How can you account for these variations?
3. Demonstrate that education can change community living.
4. Point out specific instances in which noneducational institutions in a community have changed community living.
5. Evaluate the characteristics of the community school as developed in this chapter.
6. Give five reasons for "educational lag." How can these be overcome?
7. Point out instances in which educational leadership has profoundly influenced social living in a community.
8. Comment on the practicability of developing the school community into a great experimental laboratory. Can you cite examples where this is already being accomplished?
9. How would you proceed to develop a research on any of the topics suggested? Can you add other fields in which research is needed in school-community relations?
10. Give your own idea concerning the community school of the future and its educational program.

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